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ABSTRACT

A collection of essays on the management of bilingual education programs is organized in three units: managing in a culturally diverse setting, balancing critical interactions, and special issues. The following papers are included: "Recruiting and Retaining Competent Personnel for Bilingual Education Programs" (Joan E. Friedenberg, Curtis H. Bradley); "Leadership and Motivation in a Changing Environment" (William M. Bloomfield); "Managing Conflict: Dealing Productively with Differing Ideas, Priorities and Goals" (Emily J. Shamieh); "Performance Appraisal: Using Feedback for Staff Development" (Jill Izett McCarthy); "Environmental Considerations in the Success of the Bilingual Program" (Sylvia R. Cowan); "Management of Bilingual Programs: The Local Community Context" (Terry L. Baker, Dori Collazo); "Governmental Context of the Bilingual Program: National and State" (Myrna Delgado, Barney Berube); "Some Considerations in Planning Your Inservice Training Component" (Denise McKeon); "Writing Proposals for Funding Agencies" (Eleanor Lien Sandstrom); "Finding, Adapting and Developing Bilingual Curriculum" (Betsy Tregar); "Bilingual Program Evaluation" (Robert W. Consalvo, Mary C. Madaus); "Dimensions of Data Collection and Management" (Lisanio R. Orlandi, Joseph J. Foley); and "A Computer as an Aid(e) to a Manager" (Richard W. Willard). (MSE)

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Designed by Gisela Medek

To John R. Correiro

A leader
whose mind discerns with clarity of vision,
whose heart feels and remembers,
whose hand is extended to all who need help,
especially. . .to the children

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The course of my own formal education has made me keenly aware of the uniqueness of this country's educational systems. I have received training from institutions as diverse in scope and nature as a public vocational school and a private college of law. And while each classroom experience has reassured me of the broad value of American education, I remain most impressed by the promise which education keeps for expanding the real wealth of our nation.

No system, however, if it is to remain operative and successful, can ignore challenges and new demands placed upon it. As a first-generation Italian-American, I have witnessed the obstacles which can and do confront language minority students attempting to enter into and function within our educational systems. That is why I am personally proud of the great strides which have been made in addressing and overcoming these obstacles, strides which have proven our system dynamic and responsive.

As a United States Congressman, I have worked on and watched over the growth of bilingual education for more than twenty-seven years. In that time bilingual education has risen from a purely local dilemma to a challenge of national concern. Moreover, while the debate on methods and techniques of educating language minority students continues, there can be no doubt that we have learned and developed much in those years.

Many of the nation's more recent advances in bilingual education have come as a result of the valuable work performed by the EDAC at Lesley College. Over the last ten years this Center, through the publication of quality curriculum and teacher resource materials, the provision of training and technical assistance services, and the development of information files, has enhanced the education of all non-English speaking children studying in American classrooms. Fortunately, with the publication of this book, the benefits of their achievements will be documented and made available to program administrators.

Bilingual program directors all over the country are being called upon to develop quality programs that demand highly technical and professional skills. What follows in these pages is the amassed knowledge of qualified professionals, directors and technicians alike, with extensive field experience. They present to a hungry audience, through a discussion of management theory, cross-cultural communication and current practice, a nuts and bolts manual for structuring bilingual education programs.

Bilingual education is essential to our nation for it helps bring people of all backgrounds together into a common system, and creates opportunity for those who might otherwise be unable to take advantage of the wealth our country has to offer. Given the importance of this educational program, and the need to steadily improve upon our services to language minority students, I can think of no better legacy for the EDAC at Lesley College than this book. It will serve not only to enhance the professionalism of directors in this country, but will prove itself, I am sure, as a working paper on the future of bilingual education everywhere.

The Honorable Silvio O. Conte
U.S. House of Representatives

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Publication of *Bilingual Program Management: A Problem-Solving Approach* represents a landmark occasion for the staff of the Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center at Lesley College. The book represents the culmination of a ten-year effort in providing technical assistance in management and evaluation to bilingual education projects and centers. Its appearance is especially timely in light of the recent bilingual legislation which directs an increased emphasis upon program management, evaluation and accountability.

We are extremely proud that Congressman Silvio O. Conte has contributed his thoughts to this publication. Widely acknowledged and respected for his efforts on behalf of educational programs for underserved minorities, Mr. Conte has been an advocate for the development and dissemination of educational materials for minority language group children. As a strong proponent of educational accountability, he has energetically sought to improve program management while enhancing the service delivery systems in programs serving special populations. The EDAC acknowledges his long-time support for bilingual education and is grateful for his encouragement and contributions to this publication.

Although the occasion of the publication of *Bilingual Program Management: A Problem-Solving Approach* promotes a sense of pride, it also strikes a chord of sadness because the appearance of this book coincides with the phase-out of the three EDACs. For the EDAC staff, then, this book represents a kind of "going away present," and a legacy, for the bilingual education community.

During its ten-year history, the EDAC has published more than 250 books and other educational materials in eleven different languages, including Cape Verdean, Chinese, French, Greek, Haitian Creole, Italian, Korean, Portuguese, Spanish, and Vietnamese, plus professional materials in English. Furthermore, the EDAC has provided countless person-days of technical assistance and training in management, evaluation, and publications within the bilingual community, to State Education Agencies, the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, and the Bilingual Education Multicultural Service Centers. We, the EDAC staff, are proud of these accomplishments and proud of having been part of the bilingual educational movement in this country.

The EDAC staff gratefully acknowledges the support of the administration and faculty of Lesley College. As sponsor of the EDAC, the College has provided not only a home but also the professional freedom the EDAC needed to carry out its work effectively. Special acknowledgement is accorded Robert Lewis, Acting President, and Jennifer Page, Vice-President for Administration, for the positive relationship they made possible between the College and the EDAC.

Both of these individuals have been consistent in their conviction that Lesley College has been enriched by the presence of the EDAC and has become more aware of and sensitive to the needs of minority language children. We are very pleased to have been involved in this productive partnership and are most grateful to Lesley College for providing us with the receptive ambiance we needed to further the ideals of bilingual education and cultural pluralism in this country.

For the past four years, it has been my personal privilege to be associated with my EDAC colleagues. Each has brought a special brand of commitment and professionalism to bilingual education. Special recognition is due to George P. De George whose own unique dedication and problem-solving skills brought this book into existence. On behalf of myself and the entire EDAC staff, to all our colleagues who continue on their work in the bilingual education community, we offer our best wishes.

Paul G. Liberty, Jr.
Director, EDAC/Lesley College

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Being general editor of this book has been for me a pleasure, an honor and an invaluable learning experience. The work has been hard but has also been shared by many who deserve generous ackowledgement. First, I wish to thank Peter Calvet and Gisela Medek, former and present managers of the publications department respectively, for convincing me to take on the general editorship and for being not only constant sources of help and encouragement, but so patient in waiting out my decision and for putting up with a work style so alien to the deadlines of publications people. Richard Willard, who is ready to analyze, critique, brainstorm, advise and contribute at all times with generosity and perspicacity, deserves more thanks than I can give. The unit editors, Alan Hurwitz, who worked with me in refining the book's conceptualization, Dina Comnenou and Grayce Studley, are to be commended for undertaking a difficult task under tight time lines with enthusiasm and dedication. The writers of the articles are due special thanks for volunteering their time and expertise under great time constraints and for good-naturedly responding to our suggested revisions.

I wish to thank Paul Liberty, EDAC director, for his genuine interest, support and understanding while this publication was under development and for his appreciation of the time commitments involved. I am most indebted to the Honorable Silvio O. Conte for enhancing this book by consenting to write its foreword and for generously giving of his valuable time on our behalf.

There are other individuals whom I wish to ackowledge but who are too numerous to mention. Many respected colleagues assisted the unit editors and myself in identifying writers. To them I give my warmest thanks. In particular, I wish to thank Denise McKeon who, in addition to suggesting ideas, agreed to take on the extra load of writing an article. A special expression of thanks is due Roger Post of Congressman Conte's staff for facilitating logistical matters on the Congressman's behalf and for his good-natured support. Last, but never least, I wish to thank all members of the EDAC staff for all their help and support, particularly Mardean Huggler whose extraordinary and incisive editorial and writing skills enhanced the quality of this book in no small way and Linda Nogueira-Piscia who did the paste-up and illustrations. This publication is truly a collaborative effort and all who took part from within and outside of the EDAC, mentioned or unmentioned, deserve our thanks and respect.

George P. De George
General Editor

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In January 1984, after conducting a two-day management institute for bilingual program directors in New England, I was convinced this book had to be written. The question is why?

First, the need was there. Needs assessments, conversations with state and local directors and a search of the literature had demonstrated that. More than one veteran director over the years has wished s/he had had the benefit of management institutes before assuming his/her position, while many new directors have greatly appreciated training at a time they needed it most. I sensed that bilingual directors were ready for a comprehensive treatment of their multifaceted role in the form of a book and for the recognition that such a book would give to their professional status.

Second, the January 1984 Management Institute had reached such a point of synthesis, sophistication and inclusiveness that I felt its content was now ready to be put between the pages of a book. The organization for this book is implicit in the program of workshops for that Institute.

Third, the EDAC, in winding down to its closing, could perform no better deed than to capture in print the great amount of knowledge, insight and expertise in bilingual program management that it has brought together in its institutes. Both the approach the EDAC has used in designing management institutes as well as their contents would be passed on as a legacy and an ever-ready source of guidance to current and future bilingual program directors long after the EDAC is gone.

What, then, is this book about and how has it been organized? This book is an in-depth exploration of the critical functions of bilingual program managers that aims to provide relevant theory and practical advice for them to apply to their unique problems and situations. It synthesizes knowledge, insight and observations from many sources including major currents of management thought and practice in the public and private sectors, as well as the experiences of bilingual program directors themselves.

For purposes of presentation, the bilingual director's role has been broken down into three broad domains: management of internal program staff; management of relationships between the bilingual program and external agencies, organizations and groups; and management of technical functions such as proposal writing and program evaluation.

This analysis of the manager's role was in part suggested by systems theory which, flowing out of the field of organizational behavior, views organizations, of which the bilingual program is an example, as integrated social systems of individuals and groups which perform specific roles and functions that are interrelated and interdependent and directed toward a common set of goals, in this case the effective education of limited English-speaking children in and through their native language and English. Systems theory also views social systems or organizations, such as schools, school systems and educational programs, as "open" systems, i.e., systems which interact with, influence and are influenced by systems or organizations outside themselves. It was these insights and concepts from systems theory that helped to define the significance of the needs assessments data which had been accumulating since the EDAC's first management institute in 1979.

Accordingly, this book was organized into three units which parallel the three domains described above. Unit I, entitled "Managing Effectively in a Culturally Diverse Educational Setting," focuses on the management of staff with special emphasis on the multilingual/multicultural character of that staff. Unit I is divided into four chapters which correspond to four key internal staff management functions: recruiting and retaining staff; leadership and motivation; managing conflict; and staff performance appraisal. Unit I is organized around the idea that effective management of culturally diverse professional staff is one of the indispensable determinants of successful program goals achievement.

Unit II, entitled "The Bilingual Program and Its Environment: Balancing Critical Interactions," concentrates on the management of relationships with agencies and organizations external to the program itself. Unit II is divided into four chapters, the first being a sensitive inquiry into the theme of the unit itself, i.e., the management of relationships with external constituencies. The three chapters which follow explore relationships of the bilingual program with the local community (this includes the school district, parental and pressure groups), with the state and federal governments, and with outside training agencies. Unit II aims to increase awareness of the importance of cultivating relationships with external groups that will support the program, to indicate which relationships are the most crucial, and to suggest ways in which those relationships can be successfully negotiated.

Unit III, entitled "Special Issues in Bilingual Program Management," focuses on the more technical functions of bilingual program management, functions which deal with processes requiring specialized, technical knowledge. Unit III is divided into five chapters which deal with the critical processes of proposal writing, curriculum development, program evaluation, data collection and management and managerial applications of computers. The pricipal aim of Unit III is to provide the bilingual manager with the knowledge and resources to perform these technical functions competently.

Each unit in this book is preceded by a more detailed introduction. The reader is referred to these unit introductions for a more thorough treatment of the concepts contained in each chapter.

As this discussion has already suggested, the conceptualization of this book is the product of an evolution in the experience undergone by persons working in the field of bilingual program management. The Bilingual Education Act, i.e., Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, was passed on January 2, 1968 while the first state law mandating bilingual education was passed in Massachusetts on November 4, 1971. The Office of Bilingual Education (OBE now OBEMLA) held its first Annual National Title VII Bilingual Education Management Institute in 1977. Two more were to follow in 1978 and 1979. The priority in the late 1960s and early 1970s was program start-up. Recently allocated federal funds were available, the process was new, people were learning and needed the information to initiate Title VII bilingual programs and to make sure they were operating in accordance with federal laws and regulations. These priorities are reflected in the programs of the first three National Management Institutes—the workshop sessions were mainly informational in nature and, except for a few in the 1979 Institute, did not emphasize management training.

Another fact generally known about those formative years was that Title VII directors were primarily recruited from the teaching ranks. The reason is simple. It was felt that only individuals who were very familiar with the workings of bilingual education and who could communicate with the various linguistic groups represented in the programs could manage them. At that time those in this category were mainly teachers, individuals who, for the most part, had not been trained in administration and who otherwise might not even have thought of being administrators. Not surprisingly, it was in the late 1970s and early 1980s, after most start-up problems had been cleared, that needs assessment information and informal conversations with bilingual program directors began to reveal a desire for management training, not just technical information.

OBE had reacted to this growing need by including some management training sessions in the 1979 Institute and by making available monies for small management grants, one of which was obtained through a joint venture of the EDAC (then NADC) and the Lesley College Collaborative for Educational Development. The EDAC's first bilingual management institute, the Institute for Program Improvement, was conducted in the winter of 1980.

The needs assessment for that small institute confirmed the trend detected the year before: bilingual program directors needed and wanted more management training in areas such as leadership, staff relations, coordinating beneficial relationships with district administrators, and working with parent groups. Understandably, the interest in technical functions such as proposal writing and program evaluation was still as strong as it has always been.

Instead of the usual national institute, in early 1981 OBEMLA held a Leadership Colloquium. Shortly before, OBEMLA had also asked each EDAC to hold a Title VII management institute for its own region. Accordingly, the EDAC's Eastern Regional Management Institute was held in March 1981. On the basis of the needs assessment, management training, i.e., internal staff management and managing external relationships, was selected as an area of focus in addition to the area of program evaluation which was and continues to be a high priority. As usual, there was a sizable number of workshop sessions on technical managment functions.

George P. De George
General Editor

Unit I

Managing Staff Effectively in a Culturally Diverse Educational Setting

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Dr. Alan Hurwitz is a consultant in management and organizational development in intercultural and bilingual contexts. He has acted as consultant to the United States Department of Education, and has designed and implemented training seminars for educational managers throughout the eastern United States.

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There has been a serious lack of attention to the critical area of internal staff management by much of the bilingual education support system, academic community, and even among bilingual program directors themselves. Other aspects of bilingual program management have frequently been dealt with, particularly the technical areas such as evaluation, proposal writing, and the like. Yet even when the technical aspects are functioning at optimal efficiency, the program may falter if staff members are not working together smoothly, or if the maximum potential contribution of each individual is not being used. The program manager in bilingual education needs special help in interpersonal management because of the built-in need to deal constantly with cultural and linguistic diversities not present in the ordinary managerial setting.

The frequent lack of attention to internal staff management has appeared strange, and often frustrating, to me in my work with educational managers. Equally hard to understand is a certain resistance in the field of education to the staff management role of the program manager. For instance, in a recent consulting assignment of mine with a major urban school system, a number of middle-level administrators actually objected to the rather unacademic (to them) term "manager" which was used to describe them. But when one asks what has prevented a more successful outcome to a plan, or why an idea or a need was not translated into a more effective effort, the answers have often pointed toward inappropriate staffing, poor collaboration, uncertain leadership, unclear delegation, conflicting goals, and other examples of the failure of management in its most general sense. For some reason, many educational administrators will not address the issue of internal staff management until it becomes a problem, or even boils to a crisis.

The bilingual program director has two main functions: to be a technical resource person for his or her staff, and to be a manager as well. As a manager, s/he must recruit, hire, and retain high quality, dedicated staff. Again as a manager, s/he must motivate staff members to give the best performance of which each is capable. In addition, the bilingual program director must evaluate the performance of each staff member and be prepared to give ongoing feedback on an individual basis. Finally, the overarching managerial function is to mold the staff and the various staff groupings into a smoothly-operating whole, so that the project will act as an effective and coordinated resource for bilingual students.

Intercultural and interlingual issues complicate matters within the bilingual program setting by adding the differing styles, needs, expectations and approaches of the culturally diverse staff and students to the already complex problems of managing an effective organization. What compounds the problem further is that many of the written materials on managerial function address these issues only in general, making them less suitable for bilingual education audiences. Bilingual educators often express strong reservations about materials or training which have not been designed especially for them.

Perhaps some of the texts on management theory and practice respond to issues which are as real to bilingual education program managers as they are to managers from a wide range of educational and non-educational settings, but there is still a need for an approach to management which responds uniquely to the bilingual education context.

To assist the bilingual director in improving his/her mastery of these critical internal management functions, this unit presents fundamental concepts and practical suggestions in four central areas: recruiting and training bilingual staff; leadership and motivation, conflict management, and performance appraisal. The managerial skills associated with these four central areas are fundamental and essential to the healthy operation and success of any organization, public or private, and of special importance to the success of bilingual education programs with their unique complexities.

The writers of this unit were chosen because they are familiar with both bilingual education and management functions. They advance general concepts which have been used by managers in many different fields, and then provide focus whereby these ideas may specifically relate to practical problems which confront bilingual education program directors.

In the first chapter, Joan Friedenberg and Curtis Bradley address the issues of recruiting and developing personnel, both professional and volunteer, for the bilingual education project. The selection committee is the key to success in both cases, and the authors describe the steps by which a selection committee is set up and how it operates. In an additional section, the human resources model of employer-employee relations is discussed.

William Bloomfield focuses on the fields of leadership and motivation, drawing on research and thinking of the past fifty years. He contrasts styles of leadership based on the degree of autonomy which each style allows staff members, and gives reasons for his choice of style for the director of a bilingual education project. Bloomfield then ties in theories of motivation, reporting on research on how people respond to various work stimuli and how they become motivated or indifferent toward their work.

Emily Shamieh deals with conflict management, using recent theory which views organizational conflict as an expression of vitality of the various components of the organization, and as a possible vehicle for change. Here Shamieh views the bilingual director's role as that of facilitator and guide who is not afraid of conflict, but uses it for growth.

Finally, Jill McCarthy focuses on the development of talents and skills of staff members and the role which the manager can play by giving open and straightforward appraisals and evaluations of the individual's work, on both an ongoing and periodic basis. McCarthy establishes some norms and guidelines for creating a clear and supportive evaluation environment, and for dealing with evaluees sensitively and effectively.

Taken as a whole, this unit is directed toward helping bilingual program managers improve the quality of the staff management they exercise in the administration of their program. Toward that end, this unit has incorporated applications to situations and problems especially relevant to the bilingual setting and has introduced the concepts and terminology of the mainstream of managerial thought and practice into the language of bilingual education. The goal of this rapprochement, moreover, has been to foster the notion that bilingual staff management means, above and beyond a special sensitivity to culturally diverse populations, especially competent program planning and implementation that takes that diversity into account. It is one thing to talk about sensitivity to individuals and groups who are culturally diverse, it is another to express that sensitivity in terms of actions and behavior. It is when staff and students see action and behavior that are the result of managerial competence coupled with genuine cross-cultural understanding that they will feel that those in charge are truly concerned about their welfare. Only then will they be inspired to do their best. Management, staff, and students could not ask for anything more from one another.

1

This chapter describes the issues and processes related to recruiting and retaining competent bilingual education personnel. The first part, recruiting, includes information about organizing a selection committee, identifying and attracting prospective candidates, selecting the top candidates, interviewing, notifying the candidates, salary and benefits, and special considerations for recruiting volunteers. The second part, retaining, focuses on the importance of a Human Resources Development (HRD) program as it pertains to employees' needs and includes discussions of personnel orientation, training, and employer-employee relations.

Joan Friedenberg and Curtis Bradley direct the Bilingual Vocational Instructor Training Program at Florida International University in Miami. They are the authors of three textbooks and over forty articles, chapters, and manuals related to bilingual vocational education and vocational ESL.

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Introduction

There is probably nothing more important to the success of a bilingual education program than having a staff that is both competent and committed and which makes up a cohesive and efficient team. Competence includes skills related to content, pedagogy, leadership, bi/multilingualism, bi/multiculturalism, and interpersonal communication, while commitment relates to the conveying of positive attitudes on the part of the staff.

Bilingual education personnel may refer to a variety of staff, depending upon the type of program. Examples may include positions illustrated in Figure 1.

The first part of this chapter discusses the issues and processes related to recruiting bilingual education personnel, including organizing a selection committee, identifying and attracting prospective candidates, selecting the top candidates, interviewing, notifying the candidates, salary and benefits, and special considerations for recruiting volunteers.

The second part examines issues related to retaining bilingual education personnel, including orientation and training, and employer/employee relations.

Recruiting Appropriate Personnel

Despite the fact that having a competent and committed staff is essential to the success of any kind of bilingual education program, recruiting procedures are sometimes not only poorly planned, but are also at times plagued with political and administrative pressures unrelated to the quality of performance.

The consequences of having a poorly planned or biased recruiting process may include: not recruiting anyone for a given position; recruiting someone who is not qualified for the position; recruiting someone who has little commitment or the wrong kind of motivation; lessened credibility from the outside; lawsuits; and general dissatisfaction among all staff members (whether they are job applicants or not) at the perceived unfairness of the recruiting process (Camden & Wallace 1983). No program need suffer any of those consequences if a systematic, organized, goal-oriented, and legal recruiting strategy is employed.

Organizing a Selection Committee

The selection committee is a group of individuals assembled to identify qualified candidates for particular positions, and

Figure 1

Sample Bilingual Education Personnel

Centers (BEMSC's, EDAC's, NCBE) and Private Research Firms	*Public Schools (Elementary, Secondary, Adult, Vocational)*	*Colleges or Universities*	
✓	✓	✓	Director, Co-Directors
✓	✓	✓	Asst./Assoc. Director
✓	✓	✓	Coordinator
	✓	✓	Instructors
		✓	Teaching/ Research Assts.
✓	✓	✓	Clerical
✓	✓	✓	Consultants
✓	✓	✓	Advisory Committee Members
✓	✓	✓	Program Evaluator
	✓		Curriculum Specialist
	✓		Paraprofessional/ Teacher Aides
	✓		Counselor
	✓		Resource Teacher
	✓		Materials Developer
✓			Inservice Trainers
✓		✓	Researchers
✓			Journal/ Newsletter Editor
✓			Other Specialists
	✓		Community Liaison Person
	✓	✓	Recruiter
	✓		Job Developer

to recommend individuals, or an individual, to the hiring authority. The committee is usually composed of four to eight members who represent the group or groups that will be most affected by the addition of the new staff member. For example, the selection committee for a university professor in bilingual education may include other professors with related (to bilingual education) expertise, community members representing the ethnic groups to be served by the program, and public school administrators or teachers. University administrators and students might serve in an ex-officio capacity. The selection committee for an elementary bilingual education teacher might include other classroom teachers, parents, a university professor expert in bilingual education, and the bilingual education program administration. The principal might serve in an ex-officio capacity.

Identifying and Attracting Prospective Candidates

The first step in identifying and attracting qualified personnel is, reasonably enough, determining the exact qualifications for the position that is to be filled. This is a critical step because equal employment practices demand that the entire selection process be based on actual job performance requirements (Camden & Wallace 1983; Ledvinka & Gatewood 1977). Therefore, the place to begin is an objective analysis of the proposed position to determine the actual requirements for successful performance of that job. For detailed instruction on the theory and practice of job analysis see Fine, Holt, and Hutchinson (1975).

After the committee has used the results of a position analysis to identify the duties, minimum qualifications, and preferred qualifications for the position and put them in objective, written form, it must decide the source from which prospective candidates should come; specifically, whether from within or outside the organization, or both. Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) practices might demand that the position vacancy be as widely advertised as possible. However, in some situations, it may be legal and desirable to recruit from within the institution.

If it has been determined that the candidate must come from within the institution, the committee should compose a position vacancy announcement to be circulated among the staff, containing the following information (as relevant):

- position title
- job responsibilities

- minimum and preferred qualifications
- when position begins and how long it lasts
- application deadline
- salary range and benefits
- precise steps to take in order to apply
- whom to contact for more information
- affirmative action policy

This may seem simple, but the necessity for this information to be as accurate and complete as possible cannot be overemphasized. Clearly specifying the nature and conditions of the position and the qualifications needed tends to encourage more qualified applicants and results in fewer rejections. It also helps the selection committee be more objective.

In addition to developing and circulating an announcement, the selection committee should hold a brainstorming session to produce the names of prospective candidates. This may be handled by each member of the committee writing the names of recommended candidates who meet the criteria and submitting them to the committee chairperson. The purpose of producing the list is to have a back-up system of persons to contact in case the announcement and word-of-mouth do not produce a satisfactory pool of applicants. If contacting persons on the list becomes desirable, great care must be taken not to give the impression that anyone will be favored over other candidates, but that those named possess many of the qualifications required for the position and are, therefore, encouraged to apply. It is sometimes difficult to avoid negative feelings when a candidate has been personally encouraged to apply, applies, and subsequently is not chosen. However, objective study has found that employees' satisfaction and perceptions of fairness of the recruiting process is more strongly affected by the communication between the organization and the applicants than by their success in obtaining a job offer as a result of participating in the process. Apparently, the more accurate, tactful, and helpful the conmunication, the greater the applicants' overall satisfaction (Kleiman & Clark 1984).

If candidates can be considered from outside of the organization, then it is extremely important that all efforts be made to publicize the position opening via newspapers, radio, television, flyers, letters to other institutions, posters, professional journals and newsletters, personnel offices, local community agencies, and the PTA. Again, it is important that the information that is publicized be as accurate and complete as possible. If fluency in English is not a minimum requirement for the position, publicity should include information in all appropriate languages.

Finally, it is important to allow plenty of time for announcements to circulate and for applicants to respond (generally at least eight weeks). If final funding notification hampers the planning process, publicity may still commence, with the caveat: subject to final approval of funding. And, in addition, it is imperative that all of the information required of candidates be related to *bona fide* occupational qualifications. If an application form is to be used, questions related to gender, race, physical characteristics, marital status, dependents, age, and personal history must be avoided unless they can be shown to be directly related to the position qualifications based upon actual analysis of the job (Camden & Wallace 1983). Any tests that are to be used must also meet the requirement of relationship to *bona fide* occupational qualifications. All written and verbal communication should use non-biased language (Pickens 1982).

Selecting the Top Candidates

Candidate selection for bilingual education programs is probably more complex than for any other kind of employment. Particularly complex and sensitive issues which tend to frequently arise relate to deciphering foreign credentials and the confusion between the nebulous requirement of biculturalism, and ethnic bias. Specifically, the question often arises whether it is ethical and legal to hire someone based on their ethnicity because it is assumed that such a person would be more "bicultural" than an individual from a different ethnic group; or whether such a person would better serve the needs of the minority community; or whether such a person would help give the program "face validity." Although there are many good arguments supporting such assumptions, it is nevertheless our opinion that such thinking sometimes hampers the process of finding the most competent and committed candidate and can eventually backfire as the program earns the unfortunate reputation of ethnic favoritism and, possibly, incompetence. The field of bilingual education suffers enough criticism without having to face these kinds of additional charges.

The best way to increase participation by all ethnic groups is to advertise the position vacancy as widely as possible; to make sure that persons from all ethnic groups are contacted and told about the opening; and to use objective procedures such as those described here. The problem of interpreting foreign credentials may require some considerations regarding policies on the employment of non-U.S. citizens, the equivalency of specific foreign institutions, degrees, publications, courses, grades, and work experience.

Once the selection committee has successfully tackled these sensitive issues, it may then proceed to evaluate the candidates' credentials much like any other institution would. For the sake of objectivity, organization, and record-keeping, many programs like to devise a point system wherein different qualifications are assigned point values based on their relative importance. It is essential that the individual items to be awarded points be related to actual job requirements and be evaluated objectively. After the points are assigned, a rating sheet is made up with the names of all candidates who meet at least the minimum requirements for the job. Then, each candidate receives points for each of the desired criteria, and the points are tallied at the end.

Interviewing

Only candidates who clearly possess at least the minimum qualifications for the position should be interviewed. Other candidates should be counseled (via letter or interview) regarding the specific, job-related criteria that they do not possess. This counseling should, of course, be done in a positive and helpful manner and specific suggestions for professional development should be provided. However, there should never, under any circumstances, in our opinion, be subterfuge such as "going through the motions" of interviewing a clearly unqualified candidate, though this is often done for a number of reasons of apparent administrative expediency.

The purpose of the employment interview is to obtain additional, specific job-related information about each candidate to provide the basis for a selection decision. In bilingual education, the employment interview also provides an opportunity to evaluate the candidates' bilingual capabilities. Information must be obtained in a manner that is consistent with fair employment practices and that allows each candidate to feel and know that he or she has been treated fairly.

Research indicates that candidate ratings based on structured interviews differentiate among job candidates, whereas unstructured interview ratings do not. Therefore, employment interviews should be congenial, yet structured and standardized (Lookatch 1984; Bloom & Prien 1983). A structured interview is one wherein the interviewer (or interviewers) adheres to the same set of procedures with each candidate. In addition to the fact that data obtained from structured interviews have been demonstrated to be more valid and reliable, there are other compelling reasons for using structured interviews: making certain that each candidate receives the same (fair) consideration as well as federal and state equal opportunity legislation and regulations. Therefore, the best way to prepare for a legal, structured employment interview is to have the interview, the information to be obtained, and the questions to be asked all based exclusively on actual job requirements derived through an objective analysis of the proposed job and the knowledge, skill and ability required to perform it.

We have stressed the value of a well-planned, structured interview designed to assess only *bona fide* job-related qualifications. The discussion has necessarily been somber. However, after the structure of the interview has been discussed and agreed upon by the committee members, the process must be anything but somber. When arranging and conducting the actual interviews, all of the rules of good human relations and successful interviewing apply.

If the candidate is not to be interviewed by the selection committee as a group, then it is the responsibility of the selection committee to develop a plan that permits each candidate to be interviewed individually by each member of the committee at a mutually convenient time. Each candidate must be given adequate written notice of the time and place of his or her interview. This sometimes requires adjusting "the plan" several times in order to develop an interview schedule within which everyone, candidates and committee members alike, can relax and concentrate on the important task at hand.

The physical setting for the interview is also important. Each participant must be able to concentrate on the interview process as much as possible while attempting to establish rapport and trust. Thus, a quiet, private setting with a comfortable atmosphere that is free of distractions is essential. Many experienced interviewers arrange to have all phone calls, knocks on doors, and "can I see you for a minute" drop-in visits absolutely withheld while interviewing candidates.

Naturally, it is the responsibility of the interviewer to help the candidate relax from the very start of the interview. This is done with a genuine, warm welcome, relaxed physical posture, a friendly smile, and informal language. Relaxing helps the candidate talk more freely, which is essential to a successful interview.

Finally, it is often said that an employer makes a decision about a candidate during the first fifteen seconds of an interview. If such is actually the case, the candidate's "proper" dress, "appropriate" proximity, good eye contact, friendly facial expressions, firm handshake, and appropriate initial words are crucial to his or her success. It is essential to keep in mind that cultures differ with respect to what is appropriate verbal and nonverbal behavior and interviewers should be aware of and sensitive to such differences so that hasty decisions are not made. For some specific ideas about cross-cultural communication, refer to Sue (1981).

Notifying the Candidates

It is sometimes amazing to learn how many mishaps occur at this stage of the recruiting process. Many individuals have documented experiences in which they were verbally offered a position that later "fell through." Others tell of negative feelings about learning that despite the fact that they were offered the position, it was public knowledge that someone else had been offered it first and turned it down.

It is important to make sure that there are no discrepancies between verbal and written notifications; that all candidates are notified of the results soon after the decision is made and the position has been accepted; and that the selected candidate not be told that he or she was not the first choice. Many of the problems described here are avoided when selection committee members agree on only one spokesperson for the group.

Salary and Benefits

Salary and benefits are usually the largest operating expense of an institution or program. Although most bilingual education personnel understand that, relatively speaking, they will not be highly paid, they would not accept being paid less than other educators with comparable credentials. Most positions in bilingual education have salary ranges based on established salary scales for other personnel and/or on what grants have made available.

Salaries vary across the country and benefits vary even more. In education, benefits generally include some type of health insurance for the employee and optional coverage for the employee's family, sick leave, vacation leave, and a pension plan. Unfortunately, many bilingual educators rely on grant funds for their employment, which often results in their inability to maintain long-term, stable employment within a given institution. Job insecurity and loss of vested rights to a pension are often the consequences. It is difficult to compensate such an individual and at the very least, program managers should be aware of and sensitive to that unfortunate circumstance. Consequently, it is not unreasonable to negotiate a slightly higher salary for "soft-line," temporary employees.

Benefits which are becoming more and more popular in U.S. corporations and a few educational institutions are Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs). Such programs help employees with problems related to alcohol, drug, or tobacco dependency, mental health, cardiovascular disease, cancer risk reduction, accident reduction, and legal and financial problems. Although EAPs assist the employee, they clearly benefit the employer in terms of less absenteeism, fewer health insurance claims, higher productivity, less employee turnover, and fewer accidents. For example, companies such as New York Telephone, New York Transit, and the U.S. Postal Service each claim annual, multi-million dollar savings since they instituted their EAPs. One educational institution, the University of Missouri, claims an annual savings of nearly $70,000 since it established its program (Berry 1981).

Special Considerations for Recruiting Volunteers

There are several "positions" in the field of bilingual education which might call for the services of volunteers: advisory committee members (parents, professionals, older students); state and local NABE (National Association for Bilingual Education) officers; community members to serve as aides in the classroom; bilingual students to serve as peer tutors; community members to serve as "big brothers" or "big sisters"; guest speakers, conference presenters, and writers. Since each of these positions is indispensable to the continued growth and success of bilingual education, extra special measures must be taken to ensure that appropriate individuals are recruited.

Like the process used for recruiting paid personnel, this recruiting process should begin with a thorough analysis of exactly what needs to be done and a selection committee drawing up a list of prospective candidates. From this point on, the process becomes quite different. After the committee has composed the list of names of the best possible people to do the job, it prioritizes the list. The rest of the committee's energy is then devoted to devising a plan whereby the first person on the list will accept the invitation to serve. This plan may include recruiting a prominent individual to approach the favored candidate or having several members of the committee approach the person and convincing him or her that no one could do the job better and that the committee will help the person carry out the duties successfully. If the person simply cannot accept the invitation to serve, he or she is no longer a prospect. The next person on the list is then contacted and can honestly be told that he or she is the number one choice of the group.

Finally, after being recruited and having served, it is absolutely essential that volunteers be formally recognized for their service with letters, certificates, plaques, dinners, lunches, media announcements, gifts, or other forms of showing appreciation. Doing this will help recruit other volunteers in the future.

Retaining Personnel

In a way, the recruiting process does not end with the selection and hiring of the candidate. In fact, ideally, the candidate, now employee, should be "recruited" throughout his or her stay to cooperate and contribute to the efficient and successful functioning of the bilingual education program.

In order to help this come about, it is important to know what employees want the most from their jobs. Indeed, "a manager who is aware of which needs are most important to an employee can, within the limits of his or her responsibility, help the employee satisfy those needs on the job thus assuring a high level of performance" (Simpson 1980:48).

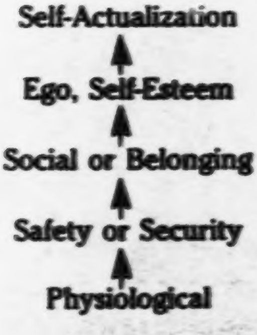
In Maslow's (1954) well-known "Hierarchy of Needs," human needs are arranged into five levels of ascending importance (see Figure 2). That is, human beings have an internal need pushing them on toward self-actualization and fulfillment. However, before these higher level needs are activated, certain lower-level needs must be satisfied (DuBrin 1984). Thus, once one need is satisfied, the next higher level need emerges and becomes a motivator.

Another model, developed by Herzberg (1976), refers specifically to needs within an employment context. Herzberg's model includes "hygiene factors" which represent the more external factors of the job:

- company policy
- job security
- relationship with supervisors
- relationship with co-workers
- salary
- working conditions

Figure 2

Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs



Based on A.H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality*, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1970).

and "motivator factors" which represent the more internal factors of the job:

- recognition
- advancement
- perception of the work itself
- possibility for growth
- responsibility

Simpson (1980) compares Maslow's and Herzberg's models in Figure 3.

Thus, according to Herzberg, money can only satisfy low level needs and only the improvement of "motivator factors" will lead to an employee's realizing his or her maximum potential. A truly perceptive and multi-cultural program manager will not only attempt to know where his or her employees present needs are (based on Maslow's hierarchy), but also be sensitive to how individuals may seek to realize their needs, based on their individuality and cultural backgrounds. For example, Stewart (1972) points out how differently the concepts of work

Figure 3

Comparison of Maslow and Herzberg Needs Models

Maslow	***Herzberg***
	Motivation Factors:
Self Actualization	**Growth Factors**
	Work Itself
Ego, Self-Esteem	**Achievement**
	Advancement
	Responsibility
	Recognition
	Hygiene Factors:
Social, Belonging	**Relationship with Supervisors**
	Relationship with Co-Workers
	Company Policy
Safety, Security	**Pay**
	Job Security
	Working Conditions
Physiological Needs	

Based on B.G. Simpson, *Effective Management Skills* (New York: Dun & Bradstreet, Business Education Division, 1980), p. 9.

vs. play, motivation, achievement, and rewards are perceived among peoples of different cultures. Thus, what may be expected and desirable public recognition for one employee, for example, may be confusing, embarrassing and even frightening to another, particularly one of a different cultural group.

Helping employees satisfy individual needs while achieving organizational objectives are the functions of management and the personnel department in large organizations. This dual but separate function is now integrated into what is known as Human Resources Development (HRD). The HRD movement attempts to "interrelate the working of management and personnel functions—bringing people concerns to the level of product concerns" and is defined as, "a concerted effort to obtain, retain and develop the human resources upon which any organization builds, grows and prospers" (Strauss & Castino 1981:25). For example, instead of merely introducing new workers to their co-workers and work location, the HRD approach would orient a new employee to the history and goals of the institution as a whole and provide structure and support for early success; instead of providing only initial training with a later performance evaluation, an HRD approach would include training for present and future growth, EAPs, and career counseling; and at termination or retirement, instead of "pink slips," two-week notices, and retirement parties, an HRD approach might provide career progress reviews, outplacement counseling and pre-retirement planning (Strauss and Castino 1981).

A Human Resources Development Approach to management can, in a very positive and important way, affect two significant factors related to employee retention: technical skills and interpersonal skills. An employee's technical skill growth and adequacy depends, at least partly, on the kind of orientation, training, and coaching he or she receives on the job. In the same way, an employee's interpersonal adequacy depends, to a good extent, on his or her relationship with you, the manager.

Orientation and Training

Many new employees know very little about the institution for which they are about to work. Often, large institutions, such as universities, conduct comprehensive orientations that generally include information about the founders and goals of the institution, the number of employees, the administrative structure, and benefits. It is helpful and advisable in bilingual programs to have experienced individuals from all appropriate language and culture groups present to help conduct the orientation and answer questions. It is also helpful for the employee's immediate supervisor to conduct a more personalized orientation session to help acquaint the employee with exactly what his or her duties are.

Training, on the other hand, helps bilingual educators deal more skillfully with their specific job duties and is usually conducted on an in-service basis for a group and/or in the form of personalized coaching by a trusted colleague, supervisor, or mentor.

Figure 4

Summary of the Workshop Format and Activities

I. Set the Stage
  - Warm-Up Activity
  - Get Acquainted Activity
  - Set Induction (Brief activity designed to focus attention on a particular topic)

II. Present Workshop Overview
  - Purpose and Objectives
  - Workshop Outline/Agenda
  - Questions/Clarification/Agreement
  - Physical Arrangements Orientation

III. ***Describe*** Skill or Strategy
  - Lecturette
  - Discussion
  - Visual Aids
  - Reading Activity
  - Film/Filmstrip
  - Recorded Message

IV. ***Demonstrate*** Skill or Strategy
  - Demonstration/Role-Play
  - Structured Observation
  - Audio-Visual Aids
  - Field Trip

V. Provide ***Practice*** or Skill or Strategy in Simulated Setting
  - Role-Play
  - Case Studies (individual or small group)

VI. Provide Personalized ***Feedback*** on Performance in Simulated Setting
  - Checklist
  - Model Answer
  - Other Trainees

VII. Bring Closure
  A. Clarification
    Question-Answer (trainee initiated)
    Question-Answer (trainer initiated)
    Informal Post-Test
  B. Plans for Application
    Verbal Commitment to Use Skill
    Written Contract to Use Skill
    Commitment to Teach Skill to Someone Else
  C. Recognition
    - Certificate
    - Public "Thank You"
    - Ceremony

VIII. ***Evaluate***
  - Formal Survey
  - Informal Survey

Notes

1. A 10-15 minute break should be given every 60-90 minutes.
2. If more than one skill or topic is to be covered, steps III-VI should be repeated as necessary.

Although Chapter 8 deals more thoroughly with the topic of training, there are two essential points to address about training as it relates to employee satisfaction and retention. First, it is essential that employees play a role in determining their own training needs. It is not sufficient for school officials, administrators, or the trainer, alone, to determine the objectives of a workshop (Bradley & Friedenberg, 1985). This can be simply accomplished by identifying a workshop planning committee composed, at least partly, of trainees. Second, it is essential that workshops be conducted in a manner that is meaningful and immediately useful to the employees. Several hours of lecture, no matter how strong in content, will not normally help employees apply or improve their skills. Bradley & Friedenberg (1985) provide a recommended format for workshops in ESL and bilingual education (see Figure 4).

Employer/Employee Relations

The second important area related to personnel retention has to do with the interpersonal relationships and communication styles between managers and staff. A manager's leadership style and interpersonal communication skills can directly affect workers' satisfaction and, ultimately, their productivity.

Leadership Style: Leadership style refers to the degree of authority or decision-making power a manager affords him or herself and the staff. Figure 5 illustrates a progression of leadership styles that range from autocratic to democratic. This progression should not be viewed as a movement from undesirable to desirable because each style can be effective and appropriate for a given situation or individual. It is the responsibility of a truly effective manager to know when to implement which style and with whom. Some employees, because of individual needs or cultural attitudes may function more comfortably in a more dependent situation where the manager makes the decisions and employees know exactly what is expected of them. Others may need more independence, perhaps as they move closer to self-actualization.

However, DuBrin (1984) points out that providing direction and positive reinforcement can improve motivation and worker satisfaction no matter where an individual is on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The following list of rules for motivating employees is adapted from the works of DuBrin (1984), Keye Productivity Center (1983), and Simpson (1980).

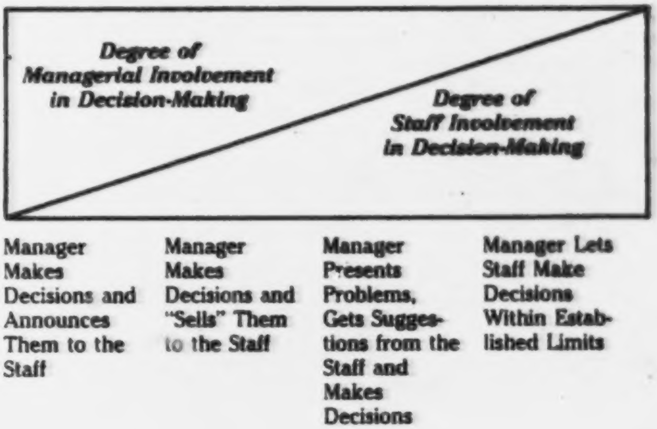
1. Recognize and reward desirable behavior.

2. Use rewards that are appropriate to the receivers.
3. Clearly state what employees must do to be rewarded.
4. Failure to respond to a positive behavior can be a negative motivator.
5. Do not give everyone the same reward.
6. Tell employees what they are doing wrong.
7. Solicit and use employees' suggestions.
8. If you delegate a responsibility, give the authority that goes with it.
9. Constantly try to see the individual needs of employees.
10. Remember to take cultural differences into consideration.

Interpersonal Communication: Directly related to leadership style, and another factor in employer/employee relations, is interpersonal communication. It is often said that 80 to 90

Figure 5

Progression of Leadership Styles


Degree of Managerial Involvement in Decision-Making
Degree of Staff Involvement in Decision-Making
Manager Makes Decisions and Announces Them to the Staff
Manager Makes Decisions and "Sells" Them to the Staff
Manager Presents Problems, Gets Suggestions from the Staff and Makes Decisions
Manager Lets Staff Make Decisions Within Established Limits

percent of employees leave their jobs because of interpersonal problems, as opposed to technical skill problems. Since interpersonal communication is a two-way process, managers must also learn to avoid barriers to communication. Managers in bilingual education programs have the additional responsibility of being aware of and sensitive to cultural differences as they relate to communication styles, as discussed at the end of the section on interviewing.

Most experts in communication agree that, by far, the most important skill to develop for effective communication is the skill of listening. Employees, far too often, must endure supervisors who fail to respond to their concerns, and allow frequent interruptions, engage in other activities, or stare out the window while they meet. Such behavior does not help staff morale, to say the least. The following ideas were developed to help interpersonal communication in multicultural settings and are adapted from Bradley & Friedenberg (1982:84-85).

- Persons from the "majority" culture in the United States convey good listening skills non-verbally by having good eye contact, leaning toward the speaker, and nodding. Persons from other cultures may not be aware of these customs.
- Frequent paraphrasing by the listener is recommended in any communicative setting; however, it becomes essential if any one of the speakers is not communicating in his or her native language.
- Stick to "standard" speech as much as possible if the other person is not communicating in his or her native language.
- Speak at a normal volume to persons who are nonnative speakers of your language.
- Be aware of "language etiquette" and try not to speak in a language that anyone in your presence will not understand. If the other person begins the communication in your native language and demonstrates only a limited ability, do not insult them by immediately switching to his or her language. Gently switch to the other person's language a few moments later.
- Ask questions to show interest and to clarify understanding.
- Actively concentrate on what the other person is saying in order to better understand his or her feelings, his

or her nonnative pronunciation, or the language in which you have limited abilities.

- Try to empathize with the other person. Put yourself in "his or her shoes."
- Do not allow interruptions or distractions.
- Provide plenty of feedback in the form of nods and comments so that the other person feels both listened to and that they were able to communicate, perhaps in a foreign language, successfully.

Conclusions

This chapter has reviewed the essential steps for hiring and maintaining personnel for bilingual education programs. It has focused on the hard challenges that all managers must face, in addition to the special issues related to language and culture that few managers outside of the field of bilingual education have been ready to confront. It is clear that the field of education in general has much to learn from industry in terms of personnel relations in general; however, it is our belief that when industry is ready to confront the issues related to multilingualism and multiculturalism on the job, bilingual education will be at the forefront; and industry will also be in a position to learn from it.

Finally, it is only fitting to end with the positive reinforcement that will motivate you to be the best manager possible—what you should expect from your employees (adapted from Eggland & Williams 1981:86):

• Competence:	To know what they are supposed to do and how to do it.
• Loyalty:	To try their hardest for the program, to speak positively about the program to outsiders, and to keep confidential information confidential.
• Reliability:	To be able to be placed in a position of trust and to carry out responsibilities, as promised.
• Honesty:	To tell the truth; not to cheat, steal, hide, or lie about objects or information.
• Hard Work:	To carry out their duties diligently; to do what they are paid to do . . . and more; and to help you be successful.

Let them know what is expected and treat them as suggested here and elsewhere in this book, and you'll be likely to have these expectations met in a most satisfying way.

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The role of bilingual program directors is to meet the academic, linguistic and cultural needs of students. To implement their program directors must gain staff commitment. The secret is to learn what motivates others and to use that knowledge effectively. It is at least as critical to program success as curriculum development. This chapter provides an overview of the extensive applied research done over the past 50 years in leadership and motivation. It examines the bilingual program director's role, gives specific suggestions for increasing staff commitment by citing specific leadership and motivational approaches, and emphasizes that the responsibility and opportunity for improvement lie with the directors of these challenging educational activities.

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For years we've heard how our lives will be different in the future. Authors Alvin Toffler (1980) and John Nesbitt (1982) tell us to expect in the future an acceleration in the scope and dimension of change. We see it happening now—our institutions, our work, the values of society are in the process of realignment. The recognition of these changes and the challenges they bring increases the demand for leadership at all levels of society. Nowhere is effective leadership more critical than in education. Excellence in education has been a national theme for several years now, and in this ever-changing environment not only must educators make well-conceived policy decisions and ensure efficient day-to-day classroom leadership, but they must also provide a clear direction for staff, students and parents when faced with the uncertainties of tomorrow.

Bilingual education is caught in this spiral as well. Although it is an established reality, continued support for it depends on the public's perception and legislation. As national and local values shift so does the popularity and acceptance of what for some people are still innovative and controversial concepts. Legislators, boards of education and the public may agree with a policy one year and reject it the next. For educators committed to bilingual education this topsy-turvy existence can be hard to manage. Teachers ask themselves if it's worth it. As program directors watch grants disappear, budgets cut, positions remain open, and curriculum questioned, morale suffers. These are difficult issues, but bilingual directors can take concrete steps to influence staff attitudes and reactions by creating an environment where motivation is based not only on a paycheck and a secure position, but also on the commitment of bilingual educators who are interested in solving the difficult problems ahead.

This chapter is written for directors taking a leadership role in developing and increasing the capability of their staff to deal constructively with change. It is based on the belief that effective human resource development and active leadership can make a difference in staff performance while improving the overall quality of bilingual education programs.

Leadership and management are often used interchangeably and they don't always mean the same thing to everyone. In this article, administration is viewed as the nuts and bolts that hold bilingual programs together: the scheduling, staffing requirements, paperflow and administrative details. Leadership is seen as the glue that binds people together while creating a vision that brings the program to life for students and staff —a process of communication, determining goals, facilitating teamwork, encouraging growth and change—creating an environment of trust, mutual support and enthusiasm that engages everyone to do their best each and every day.

The sixth century B.C. Chinese philosopher Lao-Tzu described leadership this way:

> As for the best leaders the people do not notice their existence.
> The next best, the people honor and praise.
> The next, the people fear and the next the people hate.
> When the best leader's work is done, the people say we did it ourselves.

Where to Start

The act of leadership shouldn't be a "seat of the pants" operation, but in many cases it is. People in leadership positions often rely mainly on their personal experiences and intuition to guide their actions. While experience and intuition are important, effective leadership requires more. In the last several decades thousands of studies have been conducted on leadership characteristics, styles and motivational processes. Many studies emphasize individual leadership characteristics, while others focus on the group's influence. Still others claim the environment and situations are what leaders need to concern themselves with. Understanding the theories behind the books can help to bridge the gap between knowledge and practical experience (Bass 1960). So can training. But no one has the last word on what makes a successful leader. This author believes it is the ability to be flexible, select from a range of leadership options, and adapt the fundamentals and divergent theories to the situation at hand. That makes the difference between success and failure in a leadership role. Acquiring this skill will determine how bilingual directors practice leadership in the future. That's the focus of this article.

The Leadership Challenge

> "There is one teacher on the staff whose attitude about work could really be improved. I've mentioned my concern, but nothing has changed. It's been six months now, his performance isn't getting any better and other teachers are starting to talk. I'm worried that everyone's morale will suffer."

What to do? On the surface, this is a straightforward issue, simple and to the point. How to change the behavior of this teacher? For the bilingual director in the middle of a dozen other activities, this issue requires action. What will be effective? Does the director have the power to change the behavior of the teacher in question? S/he may have the administrative power to manage this issue, but the question is really a matter of skill and experience in leadership. The director would not want to add to the problem with this teacher by making a bad management decision.

How can leaders make things happen? We mentioned earlier that some people believe that leaders have the innate ability to influence others in order to change attitudes and behavior. If that's what you believe, it would be easy to conclude that this director may not be a very good leader. But is that really the case? Frequently we are tempted to try and reduce complicated issues down to the lowest common denominator, i.e., find the "right" answer or the one possible solution. In the case of leadership, that approach is usually a mistake. As H.L. Mencken said about finding simple answers to complex problems, "they are usually wrong"? There's often more than meets the eye.

Leadership in a pluralistic society like the United States is confronted with the traditional focus on control and authority on the one hand and the democratic principles of participation and joint decision making on the other. People say they want decisive leaders, but don't always want them to decide. In bilingual programs the leadership role is further complicated by the multicultural nature of staff, the overall school environment and the leadership expectations of those with administrative and budgetary control over the program. Different people have differing views on control, authority, participation and decision making. Also, the actual reporting level of the director within the educational hierarchy (i.e., where s/he is on the organizational chart) may affect the way in which leadership is exercised in certain instances (Trujillo and Baca 1984), thus limiting or enhancing the perceived authority of the director.

So without more information about the program, the tasks in question, the specific situation, the quality of the communication, and the mutual needs of the teacher and the director, an informed decision on what this director should do with his/her teacher would be impossible.

Given all these variables, it's no surprise that leadership is a complicated and tricky business. There isn't one method or solution to the dilemmas faced by directors each week. While no one has the last word on what makes a good leader (Lumsden 1974), there are certain leadership principles that, if digested and applied, can eliminate many of the problems that crop up in the course of a day. But as we'll see, the approach used in one situation may not be effective in the next. The director who does his or her homework and takes the time to evaluate what is going on has a better chance than the director who has all of the answers before the questions are even asked!

Leadership and Authority

Intellectually, we all realize that administrative authority and titles don't make leaders. It's stating the obvious to say that leaders can't lead without people who are willing to be led. Translated, if your staff doesn't accept you in the role of leader, efforts to provide direction or to influence behavior may be met with some form of resistance. They may try to exercise authority indirectly through memo-writing instead, or by having a discussion. Or they'll talk to a staff member about a performance problem in front of others, using embarrassment and their position as a club of control. Sometimes directors adopt an adversarial attitude toward their teachers, aides or clerical staff. No one wins in these situations. Positive working relationships are essential for successful leadership. Effective leaders depend on their ability to communicate in achieving objectives and as educator Haim Ginott (1972) has said, "unlike ships, human relationships founder on pebbles, not reefs."

Bilingual directors need to be aware of this interpersonal linkage in their interactions with staff, principals, parents and school officials. Leadership requires attention at all levels. Rensis Likert developed a concept he called the linking-pin (Likert 1961). In his theory, the manager is the link or channel of communication between the people s/he supervises and the people s/he reports to. What makes it a key concept is that the manager must be seen as a valued member of *each* group in order to have any real impact on the behavior, attitudes and decisions within each group. How many managers have we known who were ineffective because their own staff didn't consider them a "part of their group," and how many managers were unable to get things done with their supervisors because they were not perceived as peers by the higher level administrators? Directors need to maintain a delicate balance in order to be successful and effective with each constituency.

Directors may fail in this area not because they aren't sincere, but because they haven't taken time to build trust. As children we learn to trust or not trust based on personal encounters. As a leader, gaining trust is the first priority. For without trust, everything is suspect. People won't risk anything if they don't trust and cooperation is bound to suffer at every level.

Building Trust

Building trust takes time and is particularly important in bilingual programs where people come from cultures where trust is valued and interpreted in different ways. In some cultures trust is reserved for family members only or takes years to develop. In others, like the United States, trust is extended quickly, but can be taken away in an instant. For bilingual directors, a trust issue may surface because of different perceptions of authority figures by staff, students or parents. Having the ability to gain trust with people from diverse groups is critical for success as a director.

Trust-building approaches include:

- Creating an environment of minimum vulnerability so that people are not afraid to voice their opinions, and feel comfortable working with each other.
- Opening up communication channels and keeping them open at all times, not rushing conversations or phone calls that need attention.
- Listening closely to staff, not only for what's said, but what's felt. For instance, an insensitive remark by someone in the school or a co-worker about "those people" can damage trust, unless followed up quickly.
- Accepting each person as s/he is, with similar needs, hopes, dreams—but unique in his/her own right.
- Showing personal warmth toward others and concern for their well-being. Going outside the professional relationship is important in many cross-cultural situations. In many countries work is not separated from social relationships.
- Encouraging shared problem solving and teamwork whenever possible can break down barriers and increase interdependence among staff members.
- Following through on what was promised and expecting the same from others.

- Providing equal and fair treatment to everyone and dealing with individual and group issues quickly. Nothing will reduce trust more than a director who plays favorites or doesn't attend promptly to problems. This includes having frequent conferences with parents, staff and non-bilingual teachers to share information, ideas and establish personal bonds.

Paying attention to trust will help establish a creative and dynamic environment in which everyone can participate and gain personal satisfaction.

The Leadership/Motivation Dilemma

There is general agreement that the leadership process happens when one or more individuals determines or facilitates the setting of goals, develops plans to meet the goals, and assists and influences others to achieve them. Leaders influence and assist them to meet the goals by creating a motivational structure which usually includes both negative and positive reinforcements. Indeed, according to Drucker, "the present concern with [worker] satisfaction comes out of the realization that fear no longer supplies the motivation for the worker in industrial society. . . . We need to replace the externally imposed spur of fear with an internal self-motivation for performance." (Drucker 1954)

Several issues do arise, however. Is it really a good idea to be democratic? When does that become a problem and lead to a permissive atmosphere? And is that bad? How far should directors go when people don't deliver the goods? How can directors be sure tasks are being completed if they aren't paying attention to the work and checking up on people? Can people be trusted anyway? Should managers be hard on their employees or is the softer approach best?

These questions strike at the heart of the motivation issue and the assumptions program directors rely on to make their day-to-day decisions. Ask yourself whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1. People don't particularly like to work and try to avoid it.
2. Most people prefer to set their own goals and don't need close supervision to get their work done.
3. People avoid responsibility, preferring to be told what to do.

4. Everyone is creative and has the ability to change and solve problems when given the chance.

What leaders believe about the people they work with was a subject Douglas McGregor studied and wrote about in *The Human Side of Enterprise* (1960). He called these assumptions Theory X and Theory Y. The above questions, though simplified, will serve as a working example of McGregor's views.

Basically, Theory X assumes that management control and direction are achieved through the exercising of supervisory authority. Theory Y assumes that goals can be reached through mutual commitment and the integration of organizational needs with the needs of the employees.

If you agreed with the statements 1 and 3 above, and disagreed with statements 2 and 4, you would be inclined toward Theory X which is the more traditional way employees have been treated in the United States and in many other countries. On the other hand, if you agreed with statements 2 and 4 and disagreed with 1 and 3, you would tend to agree with Theory Y.

These theories are, of course, two sets of assumptions at opposite poles from one another. They are useful in examining how one's assumptions can easily lead to action and how many directors operate in the real world. McGregor stressed that what managers assumed about others became the fundamental orientations and perceptions that influenced the way they treated employees (perception is reality for the perceiver). The following are examples of Theory X and Theory Y in operation.

"Do It My Way"

It's simple; just tell them what to do. There are no questions and people know where they stand. While not very democratic, for some tasks it is appropriate: non-creative tasks, for example, or those job functions that don't require a lot of discussion, perhaps such as ensuring weekly class coverage or ordering supplies. This approach is not useful for all tasks, although some directors operate this way all of the time, much to the dismay of their staff. An example of a situation where this approach would not get the best results would be, for example, changing the curriculum for the next school year. Most teachers want the chance to make suggestions and discuss the pros and cons. The director who assumes that staff doesn't have the interest, background or intelligence to be involved, and announces a decision, is not using the creative potential of the staff. Pure Theory X. They aren't able to recognize that for that issue, and others, a participative approach might be much more effective.

"Do It My Way and I'll Give You Something"

A variation on pure Theory X is to provide incentives. Everyone has been on the receiving end of positive and negative incentives at one time or another, the old "carrot and stick." But some directors feel that providing incentives isn't necessary and don't want to spend their time keeping score of who did something good today and who didn't. However, incentives can be very useful if used sensitively and at appropriate times. There doesn't have to be scorekeeping. Progressive discipline is an example of a negative incentive that allows both the director and staff member to resolve problems in a rational manner and retain a professional relationship (hard on problem, not the person). Delegating a special project or having a staff member present or attend a workshop at an upcoming conference is an example of how a positive incentive can increase skills and spur self-motivation. These kinds of incentives are most productive when they reward performance, and not only loyalty, as is often the case.

One issue for bilingual directors is not only when and how to use incentives, but, in a cross-cultural environment, which incentives will be effective with staff and which may cause problems. One way to deal with this question is to ask. At a staff meeting, for instance, you might describe a situation or a hypothetical case that staff could discuss. Alternative incentives can be reviewed with staff discussing their preferences.

"Let's Work Together"

The third style, Theory Y, is used by directors who believe that work is a reward in itself and the main incentive is the job and the satisfaction of doing it well. Directors using this approach assume that people (especially professionals) don't need guidance or supervision. The creative process is respected and directors allow staff to retain a lot of autonomy in their respective roles. Directors are more inclined to rely on the personal satisfiers (Herzberg 1966) that give the individual internal rewards for doing what needs to be done. Expecting to rely on self-motivation alone, directors are often surprised and personally disappointed when they find staff members aren't pulling their weight, but they are unsure about what to do. Unless everyone is at a similar stage of self-motivation, serious problems can surface over responsibilities, deadlines, authority and communication.

It can be confusing. Suppose a classroom aide who has had perfect attendance all year doesn't come in for a week? She doesn't call, you are unable to reach her and no one is at home when you visit—nothing. The next Monday she comes to school and behaves as if nothing has happened. When you ask where she was, she explains that she had family business to take care of but that everything is fine now. The Theory X director doesn't have much of a decision to make. S/he might fire her, suspend her salary for the week, or tell her if it happens again, not to come back. The Theory Y director has several decisions to make. Should s/he discuss goals and responsibilities, pretend it didn't happen or express disappointment? Are those the only options? Of course not. The director can be hard on the problem (not showing up or calling) while sensitive to the aide's personal concern for her family. The director doesn't have to ignore or excuse the behavior, but overreacting isn't the answer either. Perhaps the aide comes from a cultural environment where family always comes first.

This case clearly doesn't have a right answer, but it is a good example of where Theory X managing can limit options and where Theory Y leadership broadens them without closing anything down. The sensitive director can get his or her point across, explain the consequences of a repeat performance and still be respected as a leader who is supportive and treats staff as professionals. That is the delicate balance. Most day-to-day situations aren't black or white, but shades of grey, yet many directors try to force fit one or the other. They aren't exercising all the options available to them.

Using Contingency Theory With People

By recognizing the different ways people manage others, you can make an informed choice based on the needs of your program, your staff and yourself. When this happens successfully, the result is what Harvard Business School Professor Paul Lawrence and Professor Jay Lorsch describe as a good "fit." In their model, described as Contingency Theory (1967), they suggest that leaders consider four dimensions that have impact on the fit between the organization, the people, and the management structure. They suggest that these four areas need to become integrated in order to create the synergy required for organizational success. The four include: (1) goalsetting, (2) time, (3) interpersonal relationships, and (4) formality of the management structure.

According to Lawrence and Lorsch, people and groups will differ "in their orientations to the four dimensions depending on the (organizational/societal/cultural) environment." These differences can be significant among people from different organizations or departments even when they are from the same cultural group. Think about the even greater implications of this model for bilingual/bicultural programs. Teachers and support personnel from different countries and cultures may each have their own orientation toward time, interpersonal relationships, management and goals. Edward Hall (1984) presents a detailed view in his writing on cultural differences and relates several incidents involving these dimensions, particularly time, which are well worth reading.

The possibilities for confusion, disagreements and misunderstandings around these issues are enormous. For instance, who should be in charge of supervising teachers? How much authority should aides have in disciplining students? Who determines the amount of time it should take to complete administrative tasks or prepare lesson plans? What are the goals of bilingual education throughout the system? And on and on.

In order to have the integration and cohesion that Contingency Theory recommends, it is up to the director first to identify where the differences come from and what they are, and second, synthesize the diverse orientations in a way that staff can understand what they all must do in order to work together as a team. While this takes a lot of time and a lot of effort, the alternative is constant crisis management and little chance for leadership.

> "What about my teachers, aides and support staff? Basically they are hardworking and do a good job, but sometimes I can't figure them out. And that makes it hard to understand them and decide what to say to them or do to help them be more effective."

If we take time to analyze what people assume and what they believe, we might discover that we can understand and actually forecast much of their behavior. Intercultural author Geert Hofstede suggests behavior is predictable in his book *Culture's Consequences* (1984). Hofstede explains that past experiences have proven that most people with whom we interact behave in predictable ways. For example, we assume that our co-workers will knock on our door before barging in; our administrative assistant will type the letter, not throw it away;

and that the teaching staff will show up in their classrooms in the morning. Without these assumptions or "mental programs" the day would be totally chaotic, not knowing from minute to minute what would happen or what reactions we might encounter from those around us. It isn't unlike the refugee or newly arrived immigrant who, not knowing which "mental programs" are in operation, views each moment in his/her new environment with a dual sense of dread and wonder.

In order for directors to forecast behavior accurately, they must have knowledge of the person and of the situation. To do that they must be good listeners and observers of other people. Hofstede makes the point that "each person carries a certain amount of mental programming around which is stable over time and leads to the same person showing more or less the same behavior in similar situations." But since behavior is the only thing seen, some forecasts may not be accurate. However, the more that is known about other people the more accurate the forecast will be. Without knowing what others believe and act upon, leadership efforts are likely to be misdirected, misunderstood, dismissed or disliked, despite good intentions.

This is particularly critical when operating in a cross-cultural environment. The behavior of one group of people may be very different from another, possibly causing friction. For instance, a male teacher from one country, believing the status of male teachers to be higher, may not accept a suggestion or criticism from someone, a woman perhaps, who in his estimation has lower status. In order to make an impression on this male teacher it would be important to understand his beliefs and his different view of the world.

The director who recognizes these cultural differences can forecast the response ahead of time and prepare for it. S/he might have created a joint project (men and women) that would serve to break down the perceived status barriers, or could have conducted a short training segment on status in the United States contrasted with other parts of the world. Certainly the director could have talked with both the male and female teachers about the potential difficulties of the status issue in a pluralistic environment. In this way, everyone would know that the director was dealing with the problem with sensitivity and understanding.

Your Role as Director

A realistic way to begin thinking about using different leadership approaches in your work is to decide *first* what it is you want to accomplish as director and the role that you and your staff need to play in meeting those goals.

In education, goals are set for curriculum, proposals, training, and many other areas, but infrequently for leadership. That is a mistake. How do you want your staff to feel when they are travelling to work in the morning, or when they leave? Do they feel important and appreciated? Are they enthusiastic about what they do? These are simple questions, but they are key elements that affect your staff and your program. This was discovered through an experiment conducted in the late 1920s at a Western Electric plant near Chicago and the results became known as the Hawthorne effect. Researchers gradually increased lighting in a specific manufacturing setting. They found that productivity increased as a result. They then lowered the lighting and found that productivity also increased. In fact, over a period of several years the researchers found that productivity and higher motivation increased no matter what they did to the workers' environment. They concluded that longer rest periods, shorter rest periods, improved lighting and poor lighting all produced the same results, i.e., increased productivity. The reason they suggested for the increased productivity and higher motivation was that the workers were getting some attention. Being selected for the study made them feel important, which meant they weren't just a number to management anymore: they were real people. The research strongly suggests that when employees feel they are important to their organization, they will want to cooperate and work hard.

Motivation and Work

Is just paying attention to staff going to motivate them? To some extent it probably will, but more is needed. Perhaps the most popular concepts of motivation and work were developed by Abraham Maslow (1970). His premise was that people were basically "wanting" beings who are motivated to satisfy certain needs: (1) physiological needs; (2) safety needs; (3) belonging needs; (4) self-esteem needs; and finally, (5) self-actualization needs. For leaders, Maslow suggests that they must help their followers satisfy their needs through their work starting with the basics and leading up to the creative self-actualization stage.

And until a lower need is satisfied, people will generally not pursue a higher one. Many people found this an attractive way of talking about motivation, but difficult to use.

Frederick Herzberg (1966), another well-known researcher, theorized that there were two major factors affecting motivation, satisfiers and dissatisfiers. He found that the variables which made workers dissatisfied about their work situation were different from the ones that really made them satisfied or fulfilled. His concept broadened Maslow's findings into workable terms people can use.

His list of dissatisfiers included: (1) inadequate supervision; (2) poor relationships with supervisors; (3) poor relationships with colleagues; (4) poor administration and organizational policies; (5) inadequate working conditions; (6) personal problems. On the other side, the satisfiers include: (1) recognition by others and personal achievement; (2) responsibility on the job; (3) chance for promotion and advancement; (4) rewarding work.

Herzberg determined that just eliminating dissatisfiers didn't necessarily result in employee satisfaction. Employee satisfaction is possible only when specific satisfiers (recognition, achievement, etc.) are also present and part of the overall leadership structure.

Many managers attempt to motivate based on needs already satisfied (salary, benefits, days off) or just eliminating dissatisfiers while ignoring the real motivators. Why? It's easier. Besides, most people are uncomfortable telling their boss they haven't gotten enough praise or are bored and need a new challenge. And many directors are "too busy," or themselves feel uncomfortable with these issues.

> "A lot of people on my staff don't let me in. They'll stop talking when I walk into the lounge and seldom share problems they may have with students or other faculty within the school. In fact, they don't talk to me much at all, except for official discussions. I'm making the best decisions I can—after all, that's my job, but I get the feeling they think that because I'm the director, they can't be honest with me."

Using the contingency approach, one must ask what is going on in the environment, managerially and interpersonally. Perhaps time has not been allocated by the director to initiate conversations. The director may be waiting for the staff to come to him/her. Perhaps the director has unknowingly sent a series of messages that have told teachers they aren't important or aren't part of the decision-making process. It's probable that unless the director makes the first move, not much will happen. S/he might begin by examining the satisfiers and dissatisfiers present, comparing these to the needs that people have overtly expressed or only subtly indicated, and then take the step of doing something about the dissatisfiers.

Here are a few approaches for building staff commitment and increasing motivation:

- Initiate meetings, conferences and short discussions over lunch, during breaks, in the hallway—anything to initiate ongoing contact beyond official staff meetings. Discussions shouldn't always be confined to the director's agenda or focus entirely on "business."
- Take time in a staff meeting to identify common goals and emphasize the importance of everyone's role in achieving them. Don't overplan the discussion or monopolize the group. Let others take the lead sometimes.
- Set program goals together and determine individual/group responsibilities as a team; don't always assign people to tasks. This builds self-motivation and commitment to the team.
- Request suggestions from staff, together with a plan for implementation—and let them do it.
- Accept dissent in discussions and keep the information flow open and accessible at all times. Directors can't afford to take things personally. Criticism is healthy and leads to a better program. Remember, it isn't your responsibility to solve all the problems, it's everyone's.
- Ask for feedback about your performance as director and provide timely, constructive feedback about their performance issues, good and bad.
- Frequently acknowledge the staff's contribution to the program and publicly highlight a particularly good job someone did, whether they created an addition to the curriculum or typed a proposal especially well.
- Take the role of learner as well as leader and don't assume you have to be the expert. Encourage others on the staff to become resources.

Developing and Supporting Staff

> "I'm not sure what I can do with my staff to help them accomplish their personal and professional goals. I suppose, if I were honest, I'd say that I don't give enough positive reinforcement. I'm overly concerned about numbers and sometimes forget to pat someone on the back or tell them I like what they're doing. I should be spending more time developing my staff, no question . . . but how?"

Growth requires effort. Directors need to take the initiative in developing staff through consistent reinforcement and by creating a motivational climate that encourages people to improve their skills and increase their resolve to meet challenges. Staff development isn't altruistic; it's a pragmatic necessity and helping staff increase their skills communicates interest, caring and concern—elements that forge strong working relationships.

Staff development and support approaches include:

- Encouraging and assisting all staff to set personal goals through planned conferences and follow-up sessions.
- Praising good work privately *and* in public, while discussing problems *only* in private.
- Treating staff members as individuals, each with different needs and ways of seeing the world—and encouraging the involvement and challenges that come from those differences.
- Using mistakes as occasions for learning to take place, not punishment.
- Criticizing behavior, not personalities; avoiding moral judgments or personal attacks.
- Reinforcing improvement in performance, no matter how little, and providing immediate opportunities for the individual to use the learned behavior.
- Eliminating unnecessary administrative roadblocks or barriers that inhibit staff success.
- Supporting staff efforts when that is needed and encouraging interdependence by example.
- Showing confidence in the staff. Allowing them to take responsibility for projects in addition to being accountable for the results by delegating individual tasks and projects that challenge staff capabilities, such as special assignments.

Remember, there are many opportunities for discussions with staff. They don't all need to be formal. A one-to-one lunch, a special development conference, or targeted staff meetings serve the purpose well and communicate your interest and willingness to help further the career aspirations of others. If you aren't sure, ask.

Selecting a Leadership Style

There are numerous tests that measure leadership style, communication skills and management ability. If you have specific questions about the way you manage, a local university, in-service department or a private career consultant can help you select an instrument that will fit your needs. Even if you are comfortable with your current style, an impartial review of your strengths and weaknesses may prove useful.

Dealing with Ambiguity

Working with people is a constant challenge. Even knowing someone's general behavior pattern, understanding their needs and wants doesn't make the relationship less challenging. Ambiguity is an ever-present factor in the manager's daily interactions with staff. It can't be avoided.

Many people in leadership positions complain bitterly about the unknown and wish it were different. If it were different and everyone knew what was going to happen and agreed about everything, it's unlikely that leaders would be necessary. Once leaders give up the need for total control, and recognize that a certain amount of ambiguity must exist, these uncertainties become easier to handle. They may even help the creative process.

The next time something happens in which the outcome is unknown, ask yourself three questions: (1) What is the best thing that could happen? (2) What is the worst thing that could happen? (3) What is the most likely thing that will happen? Once the three scenarios are listed, write down your response to each of them. Decide which outcome is most attractive and possible—and list all of the action steps you can take, your staff can take, and any supporters can take to help make that outcome happen. Once the plan is written, implement it as best you can and the ambiguity will seem less of a problem. Allowing yourself the luxury of realizing you can't control all the elements is the first step toward creative problem solving. And once you've done the best you can, let it go. If you've done your planning and preparation carefully, chances are the end result will most often be workable.

Introducing Change

Few people willingly agree to change anything. Most of the time change involves resistance and a feeling of loss. But it can be introduced with a minimal amount of pain if the leader is sensitive to the process.

People will often resist change more if they haven't had a chance to give their opinion, make suggestions, or discuss how they will be affected. Anything new requires a tryout period to get used to the difference and learn the new procedures. Many managers ignore the importance of a transition process and are surprised when the change is viewed as a total disruption. Often change is introduced and the normal feelings of anxiety are ignored or people aren't given all the information, both of which cause problems. Finally, if the habits and norms of the group are ignored, change will be difficult.

People accept change more easily if they are:

- involved in the process;
- asked to contribute their feelings, opinions and suggestions;
- told the reasons and advantages for the change (reducing apprehension);
- given feedback and regular updates about progress (increasing confidence and trust in the leader);
- respected for their feelings (even though they may disagree with the results);
- asked to help in reducing any adverse effects of the change;
- given appropriate and deserved recognition for their contribution in implementing the change.

For bilingual programs, especially, successful change depends on a carefully developed plan which is sensitive to the needs of everyone involved. Not only must people's beliefs and cultural heritage be taken into consideration, but their ability to adapt to different sets of circumstances. In most cases, slow and easy is best.

Action Plans: The Next Step

Good intentions are one thing, putting them into practice is another. First, directors need to build time into their schedule. Since we are always able to find the time to deal with crises, we should be able to find the time to avoid them.

Second, it is recommended that leadership goals be set based on a written three-month schedule. For example, "By December I will have had one professional development conference with each of my staff members." If it is in writing, an evaluation is more probable.

Third, don't give up. Leadership takes effort and change doesn't happen immediately. But if you are sensitive to the human issues and the cross-cultural differences and have identified the needs of the program, the odds are with you. The figure presented with this text provides a checklist designed to help you take all these elements into account.

Finally ask, "What am I doing to contribute to the situa-

Suggested Leadership Workplan

Completed

1. Write an outline of the current school situation and desired changes. ☐
2. Research additional leadership and motivation material. ☐
3. List personal leadership assumptions and beliefs and identity leadership model(s) used. ☐
4. List current motivational techniques used. ☐
5. List positive and negative results re: leadership assumptions/models and motivational techniques currently used. ☐
6. Determine where positive and negative linkage presently occurs. ☐
7. Determine trust levels and where weakness is evident. ☐
8. Evaluate forecasting ability and where weakness is evident. ☐
9. List leadership/motivation goals for the next six months and implement. ☐
10. Evaluate current staff developments. ☐
11. Develop individual development plans with staff members and implement. ☐
12. Develop a personal development plan and implement. ☐

tion? What is going on in the environment that affects staff motivation level? What is different now as compared to the past? What has to happen to turn it around and what am I going to do about it?"

Summary and Conclusions

Through leadership, it is possible to change work situations and increase the ability of teachers, aides and support staff to deliver quality services to students. While theoretical concepts may not exactly match your own experience as program directors, understanding the fundamentals makes it clearer why some people respond in different ways to certain approaches. Some staff members need to be challenged in their work, and others are comfortable repeating lessons and projects that were successful for them in the past. Some people will always be more concerned about their immediate security and social needs than program status or professional goals. Successful directors know what stimulates their staff and builds this awareness into their program objectives. They understand the differences and similarities between people and maximize the effort of all through careful planning.

Finally, directors need to recognize the importance of people and how much their influence is dependent upon the director's ability to forge positive, working relationships. Contingency theory is a model that allows for differences. Robert Reich, author of *The Next American Frontier* expresses the belief of many when he states: "People can't be productive unless they like what they're doing, feel a commitment to it, feel that they are having an opportunity to grow, learn and express themselves. Even the most menial job can be rendered more interesting, even more exciting, if people's innate capacities for learning, growth, and responsibility are tapped." Change is inevitable; and, as educational administrators, who is in a better position to be at the forefront of that change?

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Competition for scarce resources and differences in goals create conflict in the bilingual educational setting. Given the wide divergence and interests of his/her constituents, the bilingual program manager can manage conflict in such a way as to maximize its positive effects and minimize its dysfunctional outcomes. The bilingual program manager can and should take several steps toward healthy conflict resolution: s/he should identify the sources of the conflict; bring the conflicting parties together to work out their conflict in a positive unthreatening setting; and focus the parties on mutual goals which they all want to work together to achieve.

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Managing Conflict

Webster's Dictionary defines conflict as "a fight, battle, struggle; sharp disagreement or opposition, as of interests, ideas, etc." Webster further defines conflict as "... disturbance resulting from a clash of impulses in a person." By definition, therefore, conflict can be found within both the individual and the organization. It should be no surprise to anyone connected with a bilingual program that conflict is sometimes present. As we shall see, both of Webster's definitions of conflict, organizational and individual, respond to the divergent priorities and perspectives of the constituents of and participants in bilingual education programs. This article will deal with the way conflicts take place in an organizational, specifically, bilingual education setting, and how they can be managed most effectively.

The conflicting interests of a monolingual setting are compounded by the additional exigencies of the bilingual program and community. When and how to introduce English, whether and how to maintain the first language, how to treat the cultural background of every student, how long to fund the costs of a given child in a bilingual program, and how to share resources: all of these are examples of the issues that generate conflict for the bilingual program manager.

Conflicts arise because of differing goals and priorities or because of competition for scarce resources by various groups within an organization. The bilingual program manager must deal with conflict regularly: teachers may differ in a first and second language curriculum for the primary grades; bilingual parents may have varying expectations for the degree to which they want their children to be integrated with monolingual children; school principals may relate inconsistently to bilingual students and parents or in a way that displeases bilingual teachers, parents, and/or community groups.

It is a challenge for the bilingual program manager to manage conflict effectively. S/he must be able to recognize that a conflict exists, identify the sources of the conflict, and harness the energy of those in conflict in a positive way. Sometimes s/he needs to make hard decisions which displease members of his/her constituency. The manager must work toward resolution of a conflict in such a way that all parties win. By doing so, s/he will maximize the constructive contributions of the conflict and minimize its disruptive outcomes.

The Role of the Bilingual Program Director in Conflict Management

In order to consider the effect a bilingual program manager can have in a given setting, it is important to understand what his/her role is in the system's formal organizational structure. In most school systems, bilingual program managers tend to perform staff functions, advising superintendents and principals, and participating with principals in supervising bilingual teachers. In a small number of cases the bilingual program manager has direct supervisory authority. An example of such "line" authority is in many Title VII programs where bilingual program managers often have direct authority for hiring and supervision.

Having authority recognized on an organizational chart, or even better, having significant budgetary responsibility, increases not only the visibility but the power behind the visibility of the bilingual program manager. S/he should know his/her place on the system's organizational chart and the amount of delegated authority that goes with the function. A bilingual program manager with no official management authority delegated from above may still carve out informal authority by positioning himself/herself as the one resource person whom the various constituencies respect and turn to for advice, counsel and decision-making. Regardless of where a given bilingual program manager sits on the continuum of officially delegated authority, s/he must take a proactive role not only in managing a conflict, but in identifying and diagnosing potential conflict areas.

Conflict in a "Healthy" Organization

Surprisingly, perhaps, the "health" of an organization seems to tolerate a certain amount of conflict. Given, as stated above, that the bilingual setting consists of participants and constituents with different agendas, in my experience it is far more "healthy" for the bilingual program manager, or any manager, to recognize and manage conflict than to deal with it by ignoring or suppressing it. As Patton and Giffin (1978) point out, "left unattended, conflict in the individual results in disruptive behavior such as aggression, withdrawal, or ego-defensive reactions." Unmanaged, conflict among individuals or groups within an organization can result in a sense of one's "winning" at the expense of the other(s), and a heightened sense of "we-they." For example, different linguistic minorities may see themselves pitted against each other as scarce resources are allocated; bilingual and monolingual teachers may find themselves at odds with each other because their goals may differ.

Current theory (Stoner 1982; Patton and Giffin 1978) holds that conflict is neither inherently good nor bad; that it can contribute to or detract from organizational performance; and that optimal organizational performance may even require a moderate level of conflict. Successful conflict management will often not eliminate a conflict, but rather produce a resolution which stresses the positive results and minimizes the disruptive outcomes. For example, differing feelings among bilingual teachers about whether oral English alone or a combination of oral English and English reading should be taught in the second grade may require intervention from the bilingual program manager. S/he can work to get the parties together to communicate their respective priorities, goals, or concerns. Ultimately s/he alone may have to decide the specifics of the English curriculum. His/her decision may not erase all of the parties' conflicting feelings. If s/he is to minimize the negative feelings around the conflict, however, s/he might incorporate some of the priorities of each of the parties into the final curriculum, or find some other way to demonstrate respect for their views. Such a resolution may also represent the best outcome for the students.

The physical health of an individual is addressed by several modalities: prevention, primary care, secondary care, and tertiary care. An individual works to prevent heart disease by exercising regularly, controlling his diet, and refraining from smoking. S/he seeks primary care by having an annual checkup from his/her physician. If signs of chest pain occur, s/he seeks medical attention and may receive in-patient treatment at a local hospital (secondary care). Finally, if prevention has not been observed or if earlier medical intervention fails, advanced surgery (tertiary care) may be necessary to correct the problem.

Similarly, in treating conflict, the best form of conflict management is conflict prevention. Conflict prevention in no way suggests conflict denial or suppression; rather, as in the analogy to physical health, it is by identifying and diagnosing potential conflict at its earliest stages that the most successful and painless treatment can be effected.

Conflict within the Individual

As individuals within the group, the participants in the bilingual educational setting can struggle with conflicting pressures and needs that can affect their performance. For example, a fifth-grade bilingual teacher may want to address the widely disparate educational and linguistic needs of each student in his/her class, but may also know that the extraordinary amount of time necessary to plan for such divergent abilities would require a twenty-four-hour-a-day commitment to the job.

In another case a bilingual aide may also be a parent. In trying to fulfill the responsibilities in each of his/her roles, s/he may experience conflict because of the differing priorities of each function. As an aide, s/he may recognize the limitations of the school system; as a parent s/he may challenge those limitations in seeking the best education for his/her child.

In all likelihood, neither case of individual conflict would normally filter up to the bilingual program manager in readily identifiable fashion, but at the classroom level such conflict could be dysfunctional. In cases such as these, only proactive involvement of the bilingual program manager (or his/her designee) can result in an early and successful intervention. In the case of the teacher, building a level of trust between the teacher and the bilingual program manager may be required before the teacher will admit such internal conflict. Once it is openly discussed, however, the bilingual program manager can help teachers with similar needs or problems share the planning workload to address the varying educational and linguistic abilities and needs of all of the children. The result of such a division of planning responsibility could be not only reduction of system-wide individual conflict, but also better communication. Ultimately the result could be a standardized curriculum developed by those who best know the needs of a specific type of child or group of children.

In the case of the aide who is a parent, the bilingual program manager can help the aide determine, with the help of teachers or the principal, what actions are appropriate in each of his/her roles. Here again it is likely that this type of problem exists elsewhere in the system. The skills employed to resolve it in this instance may also be adapted to identify and resolve similar problems in other settings.

Organizational Conflict

Sources of Organizational Conflict

Stoner (1982) cites the major sources of organizational conflict as the "need to share scarce resources; differences in goals between organizational units; the interdependence of work activities in the organization; and differences in values or perceptions among units."

In this context let us look at the internal and external operating environment of the bilingual program manager. His/her constituents will depend on the size and composition of the school system and his/her place in that system, but in general they include those represented in the figure shown.

A bilingual program manager will have at least this list of constituents for each linguistic group represented in the school system.

It is obvious from the figure shown that the potential for conflict in the bilingual setting abounds. Each group has its own agenda: a building administrator may aspire to a higher position in the system; school board members want to be reelected. In addition, they may have their own constituents who introduce yet other priorities, e.g., a City Council may have to weigh bilingual education programs with other municipal programs and services when voting on a budget.

In light of the above, the bilingual program manager must employ strategies in resolving conflict that take into account the goals and priorities of all of conflicting parties in such a way as to maximize the positive results of the conflict and minimize the negative outcomes.

Identification and Diagnosis of Organizational Conflict

As in management of conflict within the individual, the value of proactive identification and diagnosis by the bilingual program manager cannot be underestimated. Recognition and positive intervention at the earliest stages of conflict are the most effective methods of conflict management.

A fundamental cause of conflict is the lack of clearly developed or mutually understood goals. Given the number and divergence of participants in the bilingual education setting, there is fertile ground for miscommunication or misinterpretation.

The setting and communication of goals do not in themselves eliminate conflict. Even if goals were set by participants, participants change, and with the change evolve different perspectives and agendas. For example, bilingual programs for Hispanic students developed in the late 1960's focused in some areas primarily on Puerto Ricans. Today Dominicans, Guatemalans, Nicaraguans, Salvadoreans, Chileans, Argentinians, and other Central and South Americans are represented in those

Components of the Bilingual Program's Operating Environment

Constituents	**Some Principal Goals/Priorities**
Internal:	
Students	Goals and priorities differ among students. Older ones may want to graduate, get a job; younger ones may want mainly to please parents and teachers.
Parents	Goals and priorities differ among parents. Some may want their children to maintain the native language; others may want their children to assimilate quickly.
Bilingual Teachers	Bilingual teachers usually strive to provide quality education for each child. They may differ greatly in the strategies employed to achieve that goal.
Aides	Bilingual aides usually strive to assist teachers in providing quality education for each child. Career advancement may also be a priority for many.
Community Groups	These groups usually hope to assist their members in improving their life in educational, health, and employment areas.
External:	
Monolingual Teachers	Same as for bilingual teachers.
Building Administrators	Administrators will usually see their role in terms of directing the educational, administrative, and other support functions of the school to achieve the goals of the system.
Superintendents	They usually strive to implement goals and policies for the school system.
School Boards	They usually see their role in terms of setting goals and policies for the school system.
Unions	They most often strive to secure optimal conditions for their members.
Enabling Bodies (City Councils, State Legislatures, Congress)	They generally work to see that mandated bilingual programs are carried out according to the enabling legislation.
Funding Sources (municipal, state, federal)	They provide funds to carry out bilingual programs; ensure that funds allocated are spent appropriately.

same Spanish bilingual programs in greater numbers. Participation of parents and community groups, positive attitudes of classroom teachers and school administrators and content of books and other educational materials must incorporate these new Hispanic groups. New linguistic minorities, such as Hmong, Laotian, and Cambodian whose needs were often not originally considered, have appeared in classrooms. As financial resources for bilingual programs stay constant or diminish, conflict can arise as existing programs struggle to preserve what they have, and new groups seek to develop what they need.

Another problem arises when existing remedies do not address current needs. For example, the Massachusetts Transitional Bilingual Education Law states that a student shall be maintained in a bilingual program for three years. At the end of that period, if the student can speak English, s/he is mainstreamed into a monolingual class. The law was a landmark at the time of its passage. Today, however, as families migrate back and forth from their homeland to mainland United States, the need for maintenance of both languages and cultures is critical, so that the child does not become an outcast in both cultures. The limitations of the law therefore create a conflict between teachers', parents', and community groups' concerns about achieving the educational goals for the child and the school board's or Legislature's concerns about the political, social, or fiscal benefits of mainstreaming.

These are but a few examples of conflict situations faced by the bilingual program manager. In order to deal with conflict, s/he must first be in a position to recognize that it exists. S/he must be able to discern its signs: attitudes or behavior that may be dysfunctional; external mandates (laws, regulations, union settlements, etc.) that may pose problems among constituents, and others.

S/he must then be able to determine the extent of the conflict, by identifying all the parties and assessing all their concerns. This identification should come as the result of interviews with actual or potential parties, and the manager should not only determine the concerns of the interviewees, but look for "leads" as to who other parties in the conflict may be.

Resolving the Conflict

As noted earlier, treatment of conflict can be compared to the medical treatment of a patient. Intervention at the secondary care stage, treatment of symptoms, requires expert professional attention. Similarly, at the secondary care stage of conflict management, conflict between individuals or groups may exhibit symptoms of dysfunctional behavior not only between the conflicting parties, but among other participants in the bilingual educational setting as well. Resolution of conflict at this stage also warrants professional attention in order to maximize the functional and minimize the disruptive outcomes of the conflict.

Long-Range Strategies for Resolving Conflict

As the professional vitally interested in the successful resolution of conflict in the bilingual educational setting, the bilingual program manager must employ several long-range strategies in working with the actual or potential parties. First, there must be a basis for trust between each of the conflicting parties and the bilingual program manager. If each of the conflicting parties has in past dealings viewed the bilingual program manager as understanding and supportive of their goals and fair and reasonable, that manager takes a significant amount of credibility into the conflict arena. Second, and perhaps a *sine qua non,* the manager must be viewed on all sides as having respect and influence in the system, either formal power, as delegated by a higher authority, or informally as generated by himself/herself. If the manager lacks either of these criteria, s/he may be unsuccessful from the start in bringing about a meaningful improvement in the situation. If s/he lacks respect or trust from the conflicting parties, it is unlikely that they will open up enough to get to the root of the problem, or to honestly look for resolution. If s/he is perceived as lacking authority, even if s/he is well-liked, the parties will probably not commit to working out a resolution that could be overturned higher up in the system. Perception of authority is as important as the authority itself.

Building trust and building a perception of power may be accomplished in the same ways. By establishing himself/herself as a resource to the parties when there is no conflict, a bilingual program manager gains both trust and power. For example, a bilingual program manager can provide guidance and obtain extra materials for a group of bilingual and monolingual teachers who are developing a joint social studies unit. The manager can take advantage of his/her connections elsewhere in municipal government to facilitate for parents or community groups in areas of concern such as housing, medical care, or social services. S/he can work with a school principal to get media attention for a multicultural festival organized by students, teachers, and parents. Such acts may cost the bilingual program manager little in terms of financial or staff resources, but are invaluable in demonstrating both an awareness of various parties' needs and an ability to respond to them effectively.

Working with constituents on a regular basis will not in itself ensure their cooperation with the bilingual program manager around a particular conflict. It will, however, provide a basis for willingness among the parties to come together to discuss their conflicting concerns openly.

As noted above, confusion around goals is a basic source of conflict. The bilingual program manager should develop an on-going goal-setting process which invites broad-based participation whenever possible. Limits to participatory goal-setting may be prescribed by legal, fiscal, or other constraints, imposed externally on the school administration. Within these constraints, however, the bilingual program manager should solicit broad input in determining goals as a means of avoiding conflict in the future. Where goals and policies have been predetermined by external authority, the bilingual program manager should educate all those who may be involved so that misinterpretation based on misunderstanding of those goals and policies does not occur. S/he should provide a mechanism for constituents to review and update existing goals and policies in light of changing priorities and exigencies.

Short-Term Techniques for Conflict Resolution

Dana (1982) proposes that managers, sometimes unknowingly, already possess skills and knowledge needed to resolve conflict. Some short-term techniques are:

Interviews: The resolution process involves conducting separate interviews between the manager and each of the conflicting parties. The interviews will enable each party to describe his/her perception of the conflict.

Sessions with All the Parties: The manager should schedule these sessions in a "neutral" location, with little possibility for interruption in order to minimize potential excuses among the parties to withdraw from the discussion.

Preventing Disengagement: Dana sees three important tasks for the manager in mediating conflict. First, s/he should prevent disengagement i.e., the physical or emotional withdrawal from group discussions around the conflict. A bilingual teacher who is a party in conflict may feel uncomfortable during a meeting. S/he may decide s/he has to return to the classroom and cannot continue to participate. The bilingual program manager could have acted to prevent this physical withdrawal by scheduling the meeting at a non-class hour or by arranging to have sufficient coverage of the class for a meeting taking place during the school day. Signs of emotional withdrawal are participants' being quiet or trying to change the topic of conversation to something less threatening.

Supporting Conciliatory Gestures: Dana's second step is supporting conciliatory gestures. In a school where the principal encourages pairings of bilingual and monolingual students in non-academic areas, both bilingual and monolingual teachers may fear they lack the ability to deal with the other's children. The bilingual program manager has been asked to try to mediate. During a meeting, sensitive concerns are brought up, such as teachers feeling inadequate in the other language, or worrying about potential fights between the bilingual and monolingual children. Finally, the monolingual teacher says that with additional support s/he would be willing to take both the bilingual and monolingual children out to recess every other day. The bilingual program manager immediately asks the principal what support he can provide and it is decided that the vice-principal and one aide will accompany the classes out to recess for at least a month. Sometimes a conciliatory gesture may not be so overt; it is imperative that the bilingual program manager be able to recognize and support subtle gestures of conciliation.

Wait! The third task in mediating conflict is to allow as much time as is necessary for the participants to become comfortable with the process. The manager's impatience with the parties' slowness to what may seem an obvious solution to the conflict will serve to increase their frustration with the process. The manager should control any impulses s/he has to speed up the process so that all of the parties will feel encouraged to participate.

Follow-Up: Another important step in conflict management is ensuring necessary follow-up of the meeting. Gains made in an initial meeting will be lost without future meetings of the parties involved, to check on how things are going.

Seeking Help: It is important for the bilingual program manager to recognize that s/he may not be the most suitable person to resolve a specific conflict. Delegating mediation of the conflict to an outside consultant or someone else within the system may be the program manager's most effective method of managing a particular conflict, especially if s/he considers himself/herself to be a party to the conflict. It is important that whoever is delegated to resolve the conflict also be perceived as having both trust and authority.

A Case Study

A case study outside of the bilingual setting will help illustrate some of the conflict resolution strategies and techniques described above. In a government agency with which I have had experience, the administrative director responsible for budget, accounting, and personnel was concerned that her staff was not providing timely and complete services to the programs of the agency. She also feared that the programs did not understand or would not accept the constraints on the administrative staff imposed from outside the agency. This prevented them from fulfilling all of the programs' requests. She received complaints regularly from both sides and felt that attitudes were developing that were dysfunctional to the organization. Seeing herself as a party in the conflict and being heavily invested in certain approaches to its resolution, she hired an organizational development consultant to mediate the conflict.

The consultant interviewed over fifteen key participants in the conflict: administrative staff, program staff, and the administrative director. He asked each interviewee four questions: what things were going well administratively; what areas needed improvement; what requests they would like to make of the other parties; and what they were willing to offer to make things run more smoothly. From the responses to these questions, he derived a list of common goals and common concerns. He engaged even the most skeptical among the parties; they respected his knowledge and sincerity (he assured them of the anonymity of their responses). Several weeks later, the consultant moderated a day-long session away from the office where the parties discussed their concerns in a remarkably nonthreatening way. The consultant skillfully guided the parties through some potential rough spots and helped them refocus from a somewhat "we-they" attitude to a group which worked on addressing some problems which, when solved, would make the quality of work life for each group member much better. Several small problems were solved before the session ended and a forum for working through the more complex issues was established.

Both as a party in the conflict, and as a manager, the administrative director benefited from this manner of resolving the conflict: she was able to focus her attention on her own needs as a party to the conflict, rather than having to serve as a mediator. Also, by seeing her out of an authority role in this situation, the other participants, including members of her own staff, felt more comfortable about raising issues about her own performance. As a manager, she knew that the specialist's ability to guide the group to probe difficult areas in an unthreatening way was critical, since the participants in the process would have to continue to work together once the session was through. She recognized her own limitations in carrying out such a skillful and sensitive task.

The mediator did not resolve the conflict: the conflicting parties identified and worked out the issues of concern. The consultant provided the vehicle for the communication that needed to occur in order to create more trust and understanding, and more awareness of common goals.

Although resolution of the conflict in this case involves the.use of an outside consultant, it nonetheless demonstrates techniques for the manager necessary to handle conflict in his/her own organization. First, the manager recognized the conflict and identified some of its sources. She then delegated mediation to an outside resource so that she could participate as a party in the conflict. (If funds are not available to hire an outside consultant, other program directors may be recruited to mediate; conversely, the bilingual program director may be called upon occasionally to act as a mediator for another program director.) The mediator conducted interviews to explore the issues further. He convened the parties in a neutral setting and, after several problems were resolved, ensured a mechanism for follow-up to deal with some of the longer-term problems.

Summary

Conflict has an important place in an organization. Managing conflict in such a way as to take advantage of its functional contribution to the organization as well as to minimize its disruptive aspects should be the goal of the bilingual program manager. Whether the conflict is within an individual or among individuals or groups within the school system, the bilingual program manager can take these steps toward healthy conflict resolution:

- positioning himself/herself as an authority (either formally or informally) in the system
- recognizing that a conflict exists
- identifying and helping participants to diagnose the conflict
- bringing the party(s) together to discuss openly his/her/their concerns
- recognizing his/her own strengths and limitations in resolving the conflict
- bringing in outside resources to resolve the conflict as needed
- focusing the group on mutual goals which all sides want to work together to achieve.

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The act of appraising teacher performance is especially difficult for the bilingual program administrator who must contend with linguistic and/or cultural variables as well as the inherent difficulties of appraisal. The director can play the role of developer/counselor in an organizational setting which supports program goals and encourages the development function of the appraisal process. Effective performance appraisal is based on frequent, ongoing feedback through both formal and informal communication channels. The formal performance appraisal conference can be improved by adjusting the setting and content as well as by developing interpersonal skills.

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The performance evaluation of teaching staff has long been a subject of concern by both teachers and administrators and has resulted in teachers' union contract issues, legal activities, and, at the least, moments of increased stress between many supervisors and their staff members. The act of evaluating teacher performance is difficult due not only to the nature of the teaching and learning process, but also because of the potential seriousness of negative evaluations. The evaluation has been used as a tool for dismissing incompetent teachers, certainly, but also as a means of releasing those who, perhaps due to differences in teaching style or personality, do not fit the mold.

Any kind of performance evaluation perceived as a subjective or personal judgment by the person being evaluated may be a threatening, nonproductive activity. The situation may also be strained if the evaluee feels the evaluator is "playing God." In its worst manifestation, evaluation takes place as follows: the administrator contends with formal evaluation content and procedures which may be subjective, outdated or irrelevant; he/she must judge the quality of the teaching act, often in a matter of minutes, and then convey the findings and recommendations of the classroom visit in a hurried and/or tense conference with the staff member. To further color this picture, even if the evaluation were to be a positive one, the teacher cannot be rewarded with appropriate salary increases or other benefits since public education historically has not tied rewards to successful performance. So in some ways, the process can only hurt.

The bilingual program director begins with the same types of concerns as the non-bilingual administrator who is doing teacher performance appraisals. He/she also is faced with many additional complex aspects of appraisal due to the nature of the bilingual/bicultural teaching staff, the special goals and objectives of the bilingual program, and the way that the bilingual program operates within and coordinates with the mainstream, English-speaking school program. For example, bilingual program teachers being evaluated may feel they cannot be fairly judged when the evaluator does not speak the language of instruction of the classroom. The bilingual program director may find him/herself mediating an evaluation conference between teacher and principal based on this conflict. In addition, a program administrator may share the responsibility of evaluating his/her staff with the school level administrator, usually the principal of the school in which the bilingual teacher is working. If the evaluators have different expectations and criteria for a successful teaching performance, there is likely to be conflict when final judgments must be made. Furthermore, the manifestations of cultural differences found in the bilingual-bicultural classroom are sometimes misunderstood by a mainstream administrator who may see these differences as a lack of control or discipline on the part of the teacher.

Clarifying the Terms

The terms *appraisal* and *evaluation* in this chapter name the process of providing feedback to a staff member concerning his/her professional performance. Appraisal is the more current word found in management texts and personnel literature and is used by this writer to signify (more than *evaluation*) the process of ongoing communication about performance rather than a one-time, formal evaluation activity. Put another way, appraisal, i.e., the ongoing process, may be more fair and usable to the person receiving performance feedback than the more common one-time formal evaluation.

Other terms used in describing evaluations of people and programs are *formative* and *summative*. Formative refers to evaluations or appraisals which take place in the middle of a term or program. They are used mainly to improve performance. Summative evaluations are usually performed at the close of some activity. They are more often part of the formal record.

It is likely that bilingual program directors have been engaged in performance appraisal (as defined here as ongoing, informal and formal usable feedback) for as long as bilingual programs have existed. They have often been the only person with whom a bilingual teacher has had frequent contact concerning his/her work, although another administrator, usually the school principal, may have had official responsibility for evaluating that person for purposes of tenure, dismissal, etc. As bilingual programs develop, bilingual teachers and directors frequently share numerous nonteaching tasks—developing curriculum, contacting parents, locating resources, for example—which contribute to a sense of group effort rather than the conventional employer-subordinate relationship. This atmosphere generates shared goal-setting, peer interaction and feedback, and other elements of effective communication.

Two-way communication is the foundation of effective performance appraisal practices and is manifested through practices such as those just mentioned. The appraisal process may also include individual performance contracts, the use of performance objectives, development conferences with individual staff members and other means of effective, nonthreatening communication. These practices will be discussed throughout this chapter as examples of ongoing, collaborative interaction between the director and teacher.

The Importance of Communication and Informal Feedback

Peters and Waterman in *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies* (1982) note the qualities of the nature and uses of communication in "excellent" companies. These qualities include "a vast network of informal, open communications," with regular, frequent and intense contact (Peters and Waterman 1982, p. 122). Successful companies make use of informal and open social and physical settings, MBWA (Management by Walking About), open- door policies, positive peer reviews and other means of demonstrating support for what they call "good news." In other words, two-way communication and responsiveness through feedback are considered priorities at all levels.

Despite the fact that there are many "excellent" schools, one cannot help but note the contrast found in so many systems: teachers isolated in self-contained classrooms, the administration building located away from school sites, teachers' meetings where good news is often nonexistent, even the insistence on Mr. and Mrs. titles which lends itself to a formality not found in many of the highest levels of corporations. Not only does communication suffer under such conditions, but positive feedback seems to be absent in too many situations for the typical classroom teacher.

Let us define the purpose of feedback as follows: "to alert the teacher to the nature of his behavior, the effects of that behavior, and the perception you, as a supervisor, have of it." (Hyman 1975, pp. 144-145). Feedback on their performance is needed so that teachers can "adjust their actions to match the needs of the situation, their own expectations, and the expectations of students, supervisors, peers and parents" (Hyman 1975, p. 145). Teachers obtain feedback in numerous ways, only one of which is the traditional formal evaluation in which the supervisor reports his/her findings and recommendations to the teacher based on classroom observations. Most feedback from the supervisor occurs through day-to-day contact, however. The director can maximize the effectiveness of this informal, daily contact by providing positive reinforcement which is immediate and specific. For example, the director may point out to the teacher that he/she has noticed the students' reading skills have improved a great deal or that he/she has seen a lot of interaction between the bilingual students and their English-only peers due to a recent field trip they shared. Another effective means of informal, positive reinforcement can come through noting specific individual accomplishments in the staff newsletter or at staff meetings.

Negative behaviors as well as positive can be reported in person to the evaluee. In this way, hard feelings and eventual confrontation can be avoided (Blanchard and Johnson 1982). Informal feedback from the director might include the following: here is what is expected; here is what you are doing well; here is where you need help; and here is what we are doing about it (Evered 1981, p. 112).

In addition, feedback can be provided to staff through group sessions centering on program goals, discussion of external evaluation reports, parent meetings and other informal means.

The Development Function of Appraisal: Formal Feedback

The formal aspect of appraisal is usually one or more conferences between the supervisor and teacher based on the supervisor's observations of the teacher's classroom performance. This "official" conference can be "both a review of the past and a launching for the future" (Evered 1981, p. 112). In other words, a significant function of appraisal is that of developing or improving teacher performance. This aspect is often termed "formative" evaluation. The development aspect of appraisal tends to include individuals other than administrators, such as students, parents and peers, as well as self-appraisal. For the program director, it is an opportunity to use positive qualities of leadership and management to challenge, encourage and direct the interests and desires of staff members toward the accomplishment of professional and personal goals. As outlined by Lewis, the developer/manager should focus on teacher improvement rather than teacher shortcomings, with concentration on agreed-upon areas for improvement of school and teacher (Lewis 1973).

Determining Performance Criteria for Teachers

Before the supervisor and teacher can establish the groundwork for open and usable feedback concerning teacher performance, there must first be some agreement about the performance criteria against which the teacher is to be measured.

What, then, are the criteria for successful teaching? Usually, they are found on the evaluation form itself and may or may not be related to the job description under which the teacher was hired. In general:

> . . . school districts seek evidence of the quality of classroom teaching performance and use some or all of the following characteristics as part of the criteria: classroom management and procedures, teacher/pupil relationships, staff relationships, and professional attributes (Educational Research Service, 1978).

In spite of these rather general categories there is as yet no general agreement on the specifications for what makes a good teacher. Each school system differs somewhat in either the specific criteria used for appraisal and/or in the degree of importance attached to certain criteria.

Consideration of teaching effectiveness may also be translated into the amount of learning which takes place on the part of the students.

Measuring teacher effectiveness through student achievement may appear to be the solution, but in fact raises many of its own complex questions. For example, can the success or failure of students performing on an achievement test be attributed to one teacher at a given time? Are teachers responsible solely for the content found on tests? Can an outstanding teacher working with a below-level group of students be measured against the same criteria as a mediocre teacher working with a high-level class? In a survey of school administrators, a majority of principals surveyed believed that student achievement data should be shared with teachers and used in evaluating teachers (Hyman 1975). This in itself can be useful feedback for a teacher interested in maximizing performance.

Other Questions about Performance Criteria

Once the basic questions about the criteria to be used in appraising teaching have been resolved, several other issues need to be considered before appraisal can begin to contribute to the development of the individual teacher:

- How are the performance criteria shared with the teaching staff prior to appraisal activities?
- Are there relevant, up-to-date job descriptions which accurately reflect the criteria expected for successful performance?
- How does an evaluator or appraiser gather the data to substantiate a judgment or opinion?
- How many classroom visits should be made to obtain a valid impression?
- Is the observer trained in observation and recording skills?
- Who should evaluate "special" staff, i.e., reading specialists, special education, bilingual education teachers and specialists?
- Should all teachers be measured against the same criteria?

For the bilingual program director involved in performance appraisal, each of these questions has further implications and may lead to conflicts or confusion due to lack of previously established policies. Indeed, in some cases, teacher qualifications may be regulated by state or federal mandates or guidelines. For example, a teacher may be evaluated as unsatisfactory by one supervisor because his/her native language is not English and he/she does not speak it fluently although he/she has been certified as a bilingual teacher through state procedures. Is the judgment acceptable? Who is responsible, that is, accountable, for the consequences of that evaluation? Another example of how bilingual teachers may not conform to the policies of a system might be found where a system uses student achievement test scores to help appraise teacher performance. It may well be that the limited English proficient students in the bilingual teacher's classroom are exempt from those tests and, as a result, scores are not available to contribute to teacher appraisal. A more extreme example might occur if those same students *did* take the same tests as their English dominant counterparts and the results were used to negatively appraise the performance of the teacher.

It can be seen that the criteria against which teachers are to be measured must be clearly presented to them so that the formal aspects of appraisal will contribute to the development of the teacher's skills and provide the groundwork for the ongoing feedback on performance which occurs throughout the rest of the school year.

The Role of Manager as Developer/Counselor

When teacher development is perceived as an essential function of appraisal, the program director can assume a management role which supports and challenges the interests and needs of individual staff members. It is a "win" situation for everybody since improvement of staff performance leads to accomplishment of program goals and objectives. The role of the manager as counselor (Evered 1981, pp. 100-104) brings out the importance of an organizational setting which allows—even promotes—such a relationship between a manager and his/her staff. This setting will be discussed briefly in terms of motivational elements, management styles, and other components of the setting which influence this relationship.

The Importance of the Organizational Setting

How can the school environment enhance the development of individual staff members while accomplishing system and program goals? Before we can answer this question, we must first consider the possibility that the bilingual education program in a given school system differs from the stated or unstated goals of that system or community. If this is the case, then bilingual education staff may find themselves in an environment which is not supportive and even hostile—depending on economic, social and political factors—to the philosophy of bilingual education.

The most blatant examples of these differences in goals are basic to many bilingual education programs such as English language immersion vs. instruction in the native language until the student can manage academic subjects in the second language of English. A second example is that of transition vs. maintenance which manifests itself in differing approaches to instruction and program models. These controversies have not been resolved at the highest levels of policymaking or academic research, and certainly not at many system or program levels. Even within a bilingual program itself, some teachers may oppose the mandated purposes of their program. The points of view may differ along educational or cultural lines within a staff, serving to divide it even more.

Setting Goals

The lack of what is called an "overarching goal" (Bradford and Cohen 1984, p. 100) leads to frustration and burnout on the part of teachers and administrators alike. This issue is at the core of teacher performance since the "overarching goal" provides "common vision," a similar frame of reference for all "despite different backgrounds and varying orientations" (Bradford and Cohen 1984, p. 109). The necessity of such a goal or goals is clear for the manager-as-developer:

> In the absence of a challenging goal that sets high aspirations, the manager tends to fall into a maintenance role that at best produces a more efficient version of an existing situation. (Bradford and Cohen 1984, pp. 107-108)

The existence of meaningful goals will alter the nature of the relationship between the manager and staff: "the impetus for change becomes the need to meet the goal, not pressure from the leader" (Bradford and Cohen 1984, p. 108). Staff members will be motivated to meet those goals that have meaning to them. They can be identified and documented through a process popularly called "management by objectives." First, though, a bilingual-bicultural staff may need to undergo a process of goal identification in order find common areas of agreement which will allow staff members to work effectively together and with the external system. Certainly the area of literacy, to pick an example, would be a common ground to begin identifying goals and objectives for all students in the system and community.

Thus, a constructive context for evaluation can be developed by agreeing on broad program goals to which the staff is committed and by linking individual staff members to those goals. The program director can now extend his/her supervising duties to include those of reinforcing and encouraging staff to pursue their goals and objectives, and providing ongoing and frequent feedback to staff and individuals on agreed-upon areas of development.

Arriving at Effective Performance Appraisal

Using the foundation of broad program goals to help determine individual performance objectives is the beginning of an effective performance appraisal program. Lewis (1973) points out additional steps: obtain commitment from the top, minimize paperwork and clerical tasks, expect reasonable results the first year, realize the initial difficulty in writing objectives, and, finally, teach goal appreciation. The difficulties for school administrators in accomplishing these are again compounded for the bilingual program director. It is a rare school system or teachers' contract which will allow variations in teacher evaluation procedures. Unless an entire system were willing to conform to procedures which include teacher self-appraisal, writing performance objectives, conferencing, etc., it would be difficult for a single program—already perceived as "different" in the case of bilingual programs—to establish its own appraisal system based on a preferred but different management style.

Even the desire to minimize paperwork is hampered by preexisting administrative and union requirements. The remaining three suggestions given by Lewis will be difficult for a program director who deals in a reactive way with day-to-day crises and deadlines because they require some long-term goal-setting on the part of the director him/herself. Long-term goals are especially frustrating for a director who may see a high staff turnover year after year; if not a coming and going, then often a shifting of teachers among classrooms and school buildings. Such movement, often found in special programs, inhibits stability and therefore makes planning, implementing and evaluating long-term goals much more difficult.

Despite these complications, the program director can begin to establish objectives and plan the groundwork for open and honest feedback and communication. A culturally sensitive director will also be aware that people from different cultures often come into the manager/employee relationship with specific, culturally determined expectations about the role of each. For example, a director who prefers to share decision-making through a participative style may wonder why some members of the staff seem reluctant to speak out in meetings, to voice differing opinions, etc. In this case, the director may find it more useful to seek out opinions on an individual basis. That same director may find development conferences difficult at the beginning as he/she tries to get the teacher to contribute to the writing of performance objectives, the identification of strengths and weaknesses, and other personal kinds of activities.

Improving the Appraisal Conference

There are inherent difficulties in asking a manager to perform both the summative and formative functions of performance appraisal. He/she is expected to appraise performance as input for administrative and manpower decisions (summative) as well as stimulate individual growth through development activities (formative). The biggest problem for supervisors, according to Les Wallace (Bianco 1984, p. 47), "is that employees react to the appraisal on a personal level, not a professional one." The easiest way to avoid this reaction may be to separate the two functions, evaluation and development, by providing for two separate conferences or interviews, one for each function.

The conference or interview can be a useful part of the overall performance appraisal if it is carefully considered beforehand. The following characteristics appear to contribute to a successful conference for both manager and employee:

1. The level of the employee's participation in the evaluation and development process. The greater the participation, the more satisfaction and the more commitment on the part of the employee to the development plans.
2. A helpful and constructive attitude on the part of the manager. This includes: a) mutual goal setting and b) the manager's knowledge of the employee's job and performance (Baker 1984).

In addition, the following steps are also likely to enhance the encounter between director and teacher: schedule the meeting in advance; create a relaxed environment with no interruptions; begin with a statement of purpose; discuss total performance, not just unsatisfactory elements; and, finally, summarize the interview (Baker 1984). These steps encompass the evaluation aspects of the conference. Then, perhaps in a future session, the development stage can begin with the director's role turning to that of counselor/developer. During this session, the two can concentrate on future performance by establishing goals and plans for achieving them. The goals should be translated into specific and measurable statements and recorded as a "development plan." This would then serve as a basis for future appraisal (Baker 1984).

Improving Interpersonal Skills

In addition to carefully structuring the appraisal conference, the supervisor should also look at his/her interpersonal behavior to see if it is contributing to a defensive, negative interaction. Wallace (Bianco 1984, p. 47) points out that many supervisors lack the communication skills to get the "essential message of an appraisal to the employee without causing bigger problems in the process."

Dr. Allen Ivey of the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, found six specific "attending skills" through which individuals can encourage fuller communication with their receivers: these are the basic skills of eye contact, body posture and voice; verbal following, open-ended questions, paraphrasing, reflection of feelings, and summarization (Kikoski 1980, pp. 129-131). Each of these attending skills can be practiced until listening becomes a useful and vital part of the feedback exchange between supervisor and employee.

This kind of one-on-one interaction is especially complex when the participants are from different cultures and/or speak the language of exchange with differing degrees of proficiency. Maintaining eye contact, for example, is a cultural variable and may be misinterpreted in a conference situation even more than in daily exchanges between the same two people. The paralanguage used to support the speaker—"uh-huh's," "I see's"— are also nuances of the culture and language and may be lacking if the supervisor is not comfortable in the language of exchange.

So, for the bilingual program director and his/her staff, appraisal conferencing can become a linguistic and cultural "bag of worms" without great sensitivity and preparation. Listening and speaking skills which the mainstream takes for granted may lead to misunderstandings for those not yet comfortable in that mainstream environment. The need for cultural awareness and responsiveness becomes clear as we look at the appraisal process. If it is to be growth-producing, then the groundwork must be laid through planning and orientation which begin with hiring, continue with training in writing performance objectives and determining program and individual goals, and, finally, end by always treating each staff member as a contributing professional with his/her unique needs and interests.

Summary and Conclusions

Performance appraisal is an opportunity to share professional information through helpful feedback. It can also be a basic aspect of a system of staff development and growth. It should be part of an ongoing process in which people are committed to common goals translated into workable objectives. The bilingual program director must deal with many problems in appraising other people's performance; in addition, interaction can be complicated due to linguistic and cultural variables.

Supported by a director who demonstrates his/her professional and personal interest, each bilingual program teacher can contribute the maximum possible to the program and its students.

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Unit II

The Bilingual Program and Its Environment: Balancing Critical Interactions

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The bilingual program is the arm of the school system which reaches into the most diverse part of its surrounding community, linguistically and culturally speaking. As such it is constantly confronted with the complexity of the educational needs and expectations of its constituencies. The success of the program in serving the needs of its students depends in large part on its ability to match its available resources with needs in the community.

This unit presents the major environmental factors affecting the bilingual program, highlighting crucial organizations and community entities which interact with the program. On the one hand, these groups can offer support and sources for needed staffing, volunteers, materials, training, and funding; on the other hand, they can exert pressures which may adversely affect the day-to-day implementation of the program, or threaten its very existence. Strategies are suggested that will enable the bilingual program director effectively to manage the intra- and interorganizational stresses which may result from the program's interaction with these outside entities.

The first article in this unit, "Environmental Considerations in the Success of the Bilingual Program: The Director's Role," by Dr. Sylvia Cowan, provides a framework for the unit. Here the bilingual director is presented as playing the pivotal role in orchestrating interpersonal, interorganizational, and community dynamics, matching needs to resources, and striving for programmatic growth.

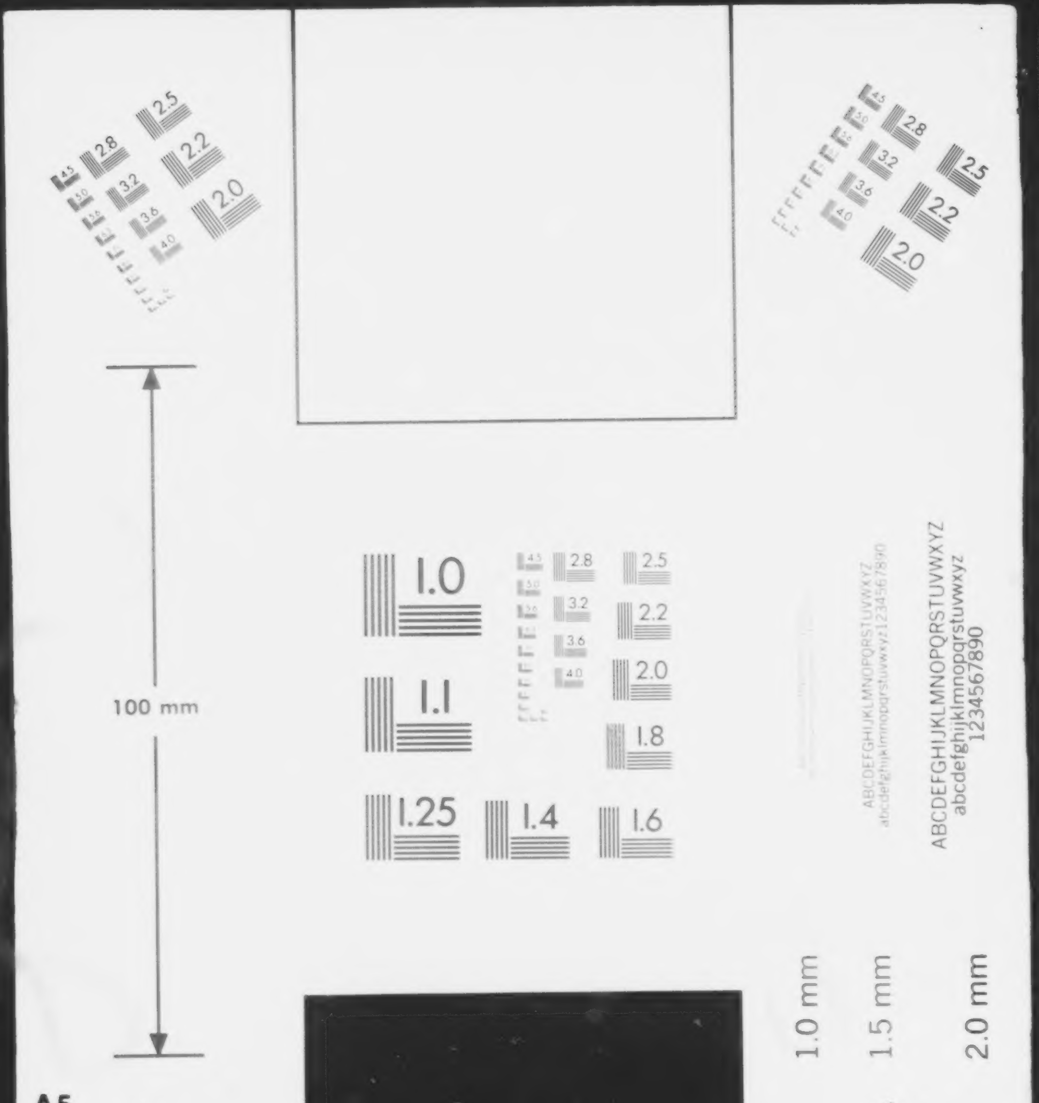
The chapter is particularly cogent in pointing out some consequences of cultural and linguistic diversity, and in detailing the intricacy and complexity of sociopolitical and interpersonal dynamics found in culturally diverse task groups, and how these may affect the bilingual director and his or her program. Dr. Cowan urges the bilingual director to view these realities as presenting positive opportunities for channeling diverse cultural strands into personal and programmatic growth.

"Management of Bilingual Programs: The Local Community Context," by Terry L. Baker and Dori Collazo, brings an up-to-date focus to the theoretical framework by which we understand the school in the community. Organizational theory once advanced the notion that each organization is "closed" and operates primarily by a system of internal dynamics. But more recent theory places the organization within its wider environment and regards it as an "open system" which has many points of critical contact with the outside world. The school is a particularly apt model for the "open system" theory, since it is subject to influence from and interaction with forces extending all the way from the federal government down to the local community interest group. Baker and Collazo focus on the local level and tell what this may mean to the bilingual education program manager. They suggest a number of ways whereby s/he may bring the problems of managing relations with the outside world within his or her managerial scope. Events centering around adoption of bilingual programs in New York City are used to illustrate a number of possible strategies which other programs may study.

In "Governmental Context of the Bilingual Program: National and State," Myrna Delgado and Barney Berube focus specifically on federal and state systems and their relation to bilingual programs. The authors, both directors of state programs of bilingual education, bring their experience to bear in telling how to deal with governmental agencies in the following areas: basic funding mechanisms and how these affect the shape and scope of bilingual programs; the types of rules and laws which regulate the implementation of bilingual programs; the organizational set-up of state and federal agencies, and how the bilingual director can find his/her way around in them; and finally, the importance to the bilingual manager of establishing a relationship with members of the state legislature as well as the national Congress. How the bilingual program may utilize the services of the state or federal agencies in terms of training and technical assistance is also covered.

In "Some Considerations in Planning Your Inservice Training Component," Denise McKeon provides an overview of research conducted in recent years on various types of inservice training, selecting for discussion some procedures which have proven effective. She tells how to determine what kind of training is needed in different situations and at different points in a bilingual program's development (how to conduct needs assessments), and she suggests what kinds of resources may be tapped to provide various kinds of training, skill maintenance, and updating. Ms. McKeon provides a list of resource agencies at the national, state, and local levels, and encourages the bilingual manager to find talent at the local level—in the school and community—which will have a positive impact on the program as a whole, since local people will develop a sense of participation in school and community affairs, no longer feeling left out of the educational process.

This unit emphasizes that the bilingual program manager is, more than most managers, a participant in an "open system," in constant interaction with forces outside the boundaries of his or her own program—a program which in itself it just a part of a much larger system. In the old model, the "school administrator," the figure we now prefer to call the "manager," deals only with the internal affairs of the educational program—the overseeing of teachers, the education of students—without regard to what goes on in the outside world. This is now recognized as an inadequate model. The bilingual program manager must, as the representative and spokesman of the bilingual program, move freely within an open system and find the persons, agencies, and power sources which will help the program to strengthen and develop.



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The environment encompassing the bilingual program is multifaceted, dynamic. Many forces influence the program, its development, characteristics and success. The program director must come to understand these forces and utilize them in maintaining the program's health and in nourishing its growth. Important dimensions of the program environment are identified and discussed from historical and current points of view. The director is invited to examine these dimensions to develop a framework for planning strategies for effective program operation and future goal setting. Guidelines for this work are suggested along three dimensions: self-understanding, networks and support systems, and maintaining perspective.

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". . .it would appear that societal factors are not merely 'interesting' or 'enlightening' for an understanding of bilingual education, but they represent powerful forces governing the success and failure of such programs." (Fishman 1977, p. 19)

Many tasks and responsibilities claim the attention of the bilingual program director: program planning, staffing, curriculum, budgets, administrative details, students' and parents' concerns. However central the daily operation of the program is to the director's role, becoming entangled in implementation issues and crisis management can divert his/her attention away from elements essential to the very success or failure of the program.

The bilingual program exists within a complex environment composed of many forces which continually exert pressure on one another and on the program. The dynamic movement of these forces sets the stage for the action, influences the number and range of actions possible, and alters the direction of the dialogue that can occur among the "players." The survival, growth and fruition of the program goals are directly related to the balance between and movement among these forces in the program context, the ground within which the program is situated.

Understanding what the forces are that interact in the program environment, how they exert power on one another, and what can be done to influence the direction of that energy is essential if the director is to move the program forward. A framework—one that allows the director to step outside daily program operations—can assist the director in evolving a useful perspective on an environment which contains rich resources and many obstacles. This larger perspective is vital, and can guide both the present operation and future direction of the program.

In an attempt to locate a grounding for this perspective, let us take a glance backward into the history of bilingual education. By examining the roots, origins, and development of bilingual education in this country, we may become aware of important dimensions that characterize the bilingual program environment.

Bilingual Education in the U.S.

Figuring prominently in the history of bilingual education in this country is perhaps the most obvious fact of American geography. One can travel this vast land for miles and miles without crossing the border into a land in which some language other than English is dominant. Unlike citizens of Europe, Africa or Asia, historically the number of Americans who encounter, on a daily basis, persons from a language group other than their own has been small. This reality, coupled with the pragmatic underpinnings of the American educational system, has meant that instruction in languages other than English has, for the most part, been of low priority. In addition, the "melting pot" philosophy which has prevailed for much of our history made clear that immigrants should master English—most often to the detriment of maintaining their own language of origin—in order to be good Americans.

With this as the general backdrop against which bilingual education developed, we turn to examine the themes which were prominent in that development. What ideas, events, individuals or groups were instrumental in the establishment of bilingual education?

On examination of the history of bilingual education in this country, we see two distinct periods: the first from 1840 to 1920, and the second beginning in 1963 (Andersson and Boyer 1978). A scan of the first period reveals that all too often the existence of bilingual programs, primarily English/German, was "attributable to the political pressure of the German element in a community, rather than to a shared conviction by English-speaking and German-speaking alike that *all* children stand to benefit from instruction in two languages . . . ; the bilingual program . . . was rarely integrated into either the philosophy or practice of the school or of society" (Andersson and Boyer 1978, p. 22). This peripheral status of the bilingual program became evident when, in 1914, all German instruction in elementary schools, and almost all in secondary schools, ended as a result of World War I hysteria (Ellis 1954).

The second period of bilingual education began in 1963 when Dade County, Florida, pioneered bilingual schooling in response to an inpouring of Cuban refugees at the rate of 3000 per month. This influx resulted in a significant change in the student population. The language of origin balance in the Miami area shifted to an almost equal distribution between English-speaking and Spanish-speaking Cuban children. In response to these external events the bilingual curriculum was developed.

Thus far a population shift of similar magnitude has not been replicated in the U.S. However, another external vehicle, the legal system, has been instrumental in the establishment of bilingual education. Advocates of bilingual education programs which emerged as a direct result of legislation envisioned the use of the mother tongue for purposes of instruction as a two-way bridge to English. In practice it became more often a one-way transition to English (Gaarder 1970). Later, changes in public policy have been achieved through a series of legal decisions from lawsuits brought by linguistic minorities (e.g., Lau vs. Nichols 1974). Advocates of equal educational opportunity for non-English-speaking students, often members of particular cultural groups, exerted pressure through these lawsuits for the establishment of bilingual educational opportunities.

Two major models, each with a different general thrust, appear in the history of bilingual education in this country. One is an assimilation model in which program characteristics promote a shift away from the language of origin toward proficiency in English. A second, a pluralistic model, advocates a structure for promoting language of origin maintenance (Kjolseth 1976). Once again the distance between theory and practice is evident. Fishman (1977) observes that, while philosophical advocates of the first (transitional-compensatory model in his terms) are rare, it remains in practice the predominant type of bilingual education provided in the U.S. at public expense.

In this very brief historical overview, it becomes clear that elements external to the program itself exert an enormous influence on the development, characteristics, and success of the program. Cultural groups exerting pressure, whether through the community or through the legal system, are often instrumental in the establishment of bilingual education programs. A major shift in Miami's population promoted radical changes in the established curriculum.

History also reveals that bilingual education is not politically neutral. Lewis (quoted in Fishman 1977, p. 6) observes that, "to the extent that bilingual education supports or erodes cultural distinctions, thus redirecting, quickening, or delaying cultural change, it also inevitably fosters the eventual politization of these distinctions." Where the political influence of a certain cultural group on the mainstream is minor, advocates for bilingual education for that group may be likened to a stepchild or stranger knocking on the door of the educational system to be let in.

Events which may seem quite distant contribute to a general climate which exerts a profound pressure on the maintenance of such programs. In an atmosphere of prevailing fear during World War I, German-English programs lost support. The launching by the U.S.S.R. of Sputnik in 1957 stimulated great interest in language instruction in the U.S. to meet the challenge to compete.

The acute sensitivity of bilingual programs to such changes in climate or condition is evidence of the marginal status these programs have held with regard to mainstream education. Bilingual education in the U.S. has most frequently been offered as compensatory education to racially identifiable minorities, in contrast to the Canadian model of Anglo-Canadian immersion experiences which includes members of both the minority and majority language groups (Fishman 1977). One practitioner observes: "The fact is that bilingual education in the U.S.A. is actually ghettoized somewhere apart from the total school curriculum, and is hardly ever treated as part of the total educational system" (quoted in Fishman 1977, p. 41). This peripheral status of bilingual programs has enormous implications for the relationships that occur among groups present in the program environment.

The Environment of the Bilingual Program

Let us return to an examination of the program environment, utilizing the lessons from history to guide our understanding. What composes the environment within which the bilingual program exists and with which it interacts? What climate prevails? Who are the participants? What systems are in place to facilitate or block the program's success? While the details vary from program to program, some general observations provide a filter that is helpful in identifying significant common elements.

The environment in which a bilingual program exists is predictably one with many diverse facets. The presence of one or more groups of divergent cultural origin provides a mosaic of contrasts and juxtapositions. It is a dynamic environment, in which changes and adjustments occur constantly as the diverse groups interact and realign.

Attuning to the general prevailing climate is useful in assessing the fertility of the environment for nurturing the growth of a bilingual program. Is the attitude that the U.S. should be a melting pot or a mosaic? How invested is the larger community in maintaining the *status quo*? How open is it to change and welcoming of diversity? Is there an awareness of the potential benefits that can result from the very different ways of looking at reality? Is there indifference to or hostility toward certain cultural groups? Are attitudes of fear and negativity operating, or is there a positive curiosity and willingness to learn from one another? Answers to these questions can provide information useful for understanding the setting within which the program must operate.

What are the different groups that occupy this environment? They include groups of a specific cultural origin or religious affiliation, business or civic groups, parent organizations, the school system and its bureaucracy, and government agencies. These groups may have disparate interests, unequal relative power or status in the community, positive, negative or indifferent attitudes toward the goals of the bilingual program. Understanding the groups' interests, power, and attitudes is important to the bilingual director, whose role it is to walk in and among these groups and develop the support necessary for a thriving program. These groups and their influence are examined in more detail in successive chapters. Here the dimensions and broader implications of this diversity are discussed.

The degree and kind of impact these groups exert on the program varies, as does the director's relationship and task with each. With some groups the director's role may be to advocate for the program; with others, to share a common vision and mutual support; other groups require that he or she account for budgets and management decisions; with still others the task is to educate, explain and develop relationships.

Within the immediate program context, the school system, policies and decisions are formulated and implemented. An understanding of both the structural and informal power within this system is crucial if one is to develop strategies for program success. The school board may represent many interests in the community, and may be a place in which attitudes are formulated and support forged. Government at the local, state, and federal levels can provide vehicles through which programs are established and made financially viable. Policies and directives can expand or inhibit program development. The legal system can provide avenues for challenge and appeal.

The scope of the environment often extends far beyond those in the immediate geography. As we have already observed, historical events that seem remote can have a direct impact on the program. International events or situations—such as wars and a resulting immigration decision to relocate 50 Cambodian families in the district—can very quickly have an enormous impact on the composition and dynamics of the community. Unrest in a group's home country can preoccupy members' attention, silence their expression of opinion, or result in intragroup tension. For example, those of Greek origin living in a community in the U.S. may be greatly divided in their views of changing policies and politics of their home country at a certain point in time. Any attempt to unify support among them for a bilingual program may prove fraught with difficulties.

This diverse and dynamic environment is the space through which the director moves; he or she must uncover dimensions along which commonality exists and alliances can be forged.

This task is more challenging than it may appear at first glance, for on closer examination we discover that the environment consists not merely of different groups, but that these groups often represent distinct "small worlds"—contrasting systems of meaning, each with its inherent values, priorities, and modes of operation (see Luckman 1970 for a discussion of this term). While each small world has its own internal consistency and logic, that congruence may be based on beliefs that contrast with, or perhaps contradict, those of another group. For example, the school system may have as a goal that all children must work independently in the first grade. The parents of a Colombian child may view this age as a time when dependence on adults and cooperation is primary. While the ultimate goal of both groups is the development of a mature, responsible adult, the time frame or methods of reaching this goal are quite distinct. Conflicts and misunderstandings prevail and the child is caught in the middle, unless the two groups of adults can arrive at some understanding of their mutual goals for the child. Many similar challenges exist for the director who is positioned between the mainstream educational system and other small worlds which constitute the program environment.

A satellite launched into space without regard to the forces of gravity and the establishment of a proper orbit would survive only by chance. Similarly, the program's success is largely up to chance, unless it is planned with regard for the interrelationships of the surrounding worlds: the degree and kind of support for or resistance to program goals; the often contrasting, contradictory systems of meaning that exist.

Dilemmas and Contradictions

Given that bilingual programs in this country exist predominately on the "margin" of mainstream educational concern and are situated in an environment of contrasting and contradictory worlds, what is the role of the director? He or she has a foot in both the mainstream and the marginal worlds.

He or she must find ways to bridge these worlds, and move among diverse and often contradictory systems of meaning. One foot is planted in the concerns of the bilingual populace, while the other remains in the mainstream education system. To remove either for very long may result in a feeling of imbalance, or a lopsided direction for the program.

This circumstance of moving between and among different small worlds is not unique to the program director. Parents and children who are members of cultural groups whose origin is not that of the dominant culture also find themselves in the challenging situation of bridging two worlds, although perhaps to a lesser degree. Contained in this situation are a series of apparent contradictions, which, while not true dichotomies, may often be experienced as opposite poles: the need to survive in mainstream culture, versus the fear of assimilating mainstream values; a strong sense of identity with the ethnic group versus a desire to be "more American than apple pie"; an ability to operate within the system versus the ability to provide a counterpoint, an alternative set of values, to mainstream culture. These contradictions provide a series of challenges for the bilingual director:

- the director may have a strong sense of allegiance to a particular cultural group in the community, yet at the same time he or she is employed by the school department, which provides the current source of his or her financial livelihood;
- the director may be viewed by members of the cultural communities as both, or alternately, "traitor" and "savior";
- the director needs a strong sense of self-identity and, at the same time, an ability to be accepted and to maintain credibility amongst seemingly adversarial groups;
- the director must advocate for bilingual concerns, yet preserve the necessary degree of "objectivity" required to operate effectively in the mainstream educational system;
- the director has a vision of the direction, philosophy, and ultimate goals of bilingual education, yet maintains a sense of present realities and immediate practical concerns.

Faced with these challenges, how then can the bilingual director, a fallible human being, hope to gain and maintain perspective? avoid feeling schizophrenic? see these challenges not as overwhelming irresolvable contradictions, but creative tensions that contribute to the ongoing dynamic balancing of this "ecosystem" of various forces interacting on one another in the program environment? help people see situations not as conflicting and frightening but as stimulating and productive? encourage others to respect the traditional while at the same time broadening their perspective? go beyond the *status quo* and help develop excitement about new opportunities created in a dynamic atmosphere of change?

There is no simple solution to this complex series of challenges, but the director does not have to engage these dilemmas and contradictions alone. To move the program toward success, he or she must find ways, with the help of others, to bring these diverse worlds together while keeping his or her own balance and sense of self.

Bridging Diverse, Contradictory Worlds

The major challenge for the bilingual director is to bridge these diverse worlds successfully, to find stepping-stones that connect paths between realities that often seem contradictory. The healthy survival and realization of program goals in the context of the environment is the ultimate aim. These goals must respond to the surrounding climate, and thus may vary from maintaining the existence of the program, to developing the quality and scope of the program, to creating ways for the program to expand and flourish, to providing increased opportunities for bilingual education and cross-cultural understanding. The challenge may range from turning around negative attitudes and a defensive posture in a more hostile environment to nourishing existing successes and expanding opportunities for bilingual and multicultural exchange in a supportive atmosphere.

In the search for a process through which these various worlds may be successfully traversed, three major dimensions deserve careful attention: discovering roads to self-understanding; developing networks and support systems; and providing for an evolving perspective in a dynamic environment. Below, each of these dimensions is considered and guidelines for evolving a useful process are discussed.

Discovering Roads to Self-Understanding

Contradictions in the environment often result in an internal dissonance for the person as different and opposite messages are received, interpreted, or rejected, and one seeks to know his or her own soul. The person standing between two worlds is in the unique position of being able to see the contradictions and arrive at a certain perspective; yet this stance can also result in confusion and self-doubt.

In his classic work on marginality, Stonequist (1937) describes the "marginal man" as one living in two societies and in two not only different but antagonistic cultures. While he lives in intimate association with the world about him, he "never so completely identifies with it that he is unable to look at it with a certain critical detachment" (p. xvi). Yet what view of *self* does one hold, standing at this juncture?

According to Cooley (1956), we develop ideas of our selves largely through images: we form images of how we appear to other persons, and additional images of how they judge that appearance. Thus one's self-image is formed through a sort of looking-glass concept. But what happens if these reflected images are starkly different and even contradictory?

In the case of the "marginal man," it is as if he were placed simultaneously between two looking-glasses, each presenting a sharply different image of himself. This, Stonequist (1937) concludes, may lead to mental conflict as well as to a dual self-consciousness and identification. W.E.B. Du Bois (1969, p. 3) comments on this condition: "It is a peculiar sensation, this double consciousness, this sense of always looking at one's self through the eyes of others, of measuring one's soul by the type of world that looks on in contempt and pity."

Standing between worlds may, then, lead to internal conflict and confusion, and fog one's clear vision of self. Recognizing this constant bombardment of conflicting reflected images is an important step in identifying the source of the confusion. The next task is to find ways to keep in touch with a sense of one's identity and be centered while these conflicting messages abound.

In the search for a process to do this, holding a mirror up to oneself can be useful. It is only natural for a program director to have stronger affinity with some groups and individuals than with others, to empathize more readily with some. Yet the nature of the role often requires some sense of objectivity. Identifying and acknowledging one's own bias is an important step in determining how that bias may impede or enhance effectiveness. It is often useful to ask oneself a series of questions: What are the issues I feel most strongly about? Where am I most likely to disagree with certain individuals or groups, or lose perspective in the heat of defending a minor point (i.e., plant one tree but burn the forest)? Can I sincerely find merit in contrasting points of view? What is my real ability to integrate differences? What are the boundaries which represent non-negotiable limits for me?

Expanding one's own understanding of self also helps the director bridge worlds. He or she has numerous opportunities to develop insight into what it's like to be confronted with change—for his or her situation, not unlike that of teachers, students, parents in the bilingual community, includes daily acquaintance with change and ambiguity. Insight into how one experiences change, lack of clarity, and conflict can point the way to new learnings and areas of potential difficulty. To what extent does the director view change and conflict as healthy? necessary? irritating? threatening?

Surrounded by mirror images of oneself, it is important to find other sources of strength and identity. By identifying which persons, environments, events and actions facilitate feeling grounded and centered, one is then able to tap these resources in a more conscious way. Becoming aware of the scope and dimensions along which one's personal support system is drawn is helpful. If support exists primarily along one dimension (e.g., from primarily those of Cuban origin), when the director is called on to bridge several perhaps antagonistic worlds, that support may be in jeopardy. Sometimes old friends become cautious of new involvements; they may lack trust as the director's role takes him or her into spheres viewed with suspicion by a cultural group or individual. Expanding one's total sources for support and adjusting one's expectations of people to the changing reality may be advisable.

Developing Networks and Support Systems Across Contrasting Realities

The diversity and contrasts in the environment of the bilingual program provide both a richness of resources and a challenge for the program director. How can he or she develop alliances and identify commonalities among groups that may see one another as adversaries? By seeking to understand each group's interests, the director, with the help of others, may have opportunities to link those interests with program goals in a way that can be mutually satisfying. With access to numerous groups and individuals, the director, with the information that flows from such contact, is also in the position of stepping back from what appears to be a conflict, and of identifying common interests or areas in which collaboration can occur.

By first sketching a picture of the various groups which have some impact on the bilingual program, the director can then begin to assess the direction and strength of their influence. Some groups exert a driving force, propelling the program forward; others are felt more as restraints, pulling back on the forward movement of the program. Some groups are more influential or have more power in affecting the direction of the program.

An analysis of these forces and the strength of the push/pull dynamic on the program can be enormously useful to the program director in several ways. First, it provides a broad measurement of the ease or difficulty with which program goals may be achieved. Planning can occur with a reference point around which the director selects a realistic time frame. Some goals may require that attitudes be changed significantly and support be built over the long term. Second, such an analysis provides a "map" for the sources of support available and the obstacles to be overcome. And third, this analysis helps the director clarify and prioritize tasks with awareness of the interacting forces and varying relationships he or she has with different groups: account to some, collaborate with some, develop future common interests with others, depend on others for specific kinds of support. This information becomes important for setting priorities and timelines, focusing energy proportionately, leading the staff, and planting seeds for future survival. The evaluation of the progress of the program, in addition to formal evaluations required by funding agencies, can be undertaken with a more realistic understanding of goals, resources and counterforces.

In bridging worlds the director also assumes a very important role as "translator" among the various groups in the program environment. He/she may share a broader understanding of goals and priorities with the program staff, engage their motivation and energy, and offset the enormous frustrations that often appear when the distance between philosophy and present reality is great. He/she may share vignettes of what is actually happening in the program itself with groups whose understanding of the meaning of the program is vague and general.

The director and the bilingual staff, working as a team, can develop, through individuals as well as groups in the community, a network of resources that can be tapped for the program. A support network involves much more than identifying several supportive individuals. Support is needed in different ways; the diversity within the environment provides vast resources.

Support can be offered, or sought, to varying degrees along the following dimensions: practical help, emotional encouragement, information and advice, listening, giving feedback as an aid to reflection and evaluation, help for reconceptualizing a problem, the communication of interest and caring. Support from different people or groups does not take the same shape or reach the same depth. If at some level one person tunes in to the need of another and responds, that may be felt as supportive, whether it is momentary, occasional or habitual (Cowan-Aronson 1982).

Thus, in considering sources of support, it is helpful to a) identify people/organizations that support the director personally and/or support the bilingual program; b) determine the dimensions along which they provide support; c) analyze dimensions along which support is missing; and d) look for ways to fill in the gaps where support is needed. The formation of a strong advisory group for the program may help balance power when it is absent in the direct hierarchy. With regular connections with informal groups of trusted people, one can build a context to solve problems, gain insight, and provide perspective during crises. Reciprocal relationships built over time can reduce stress and provide a context for making sense out of what is happening. Knowing what helps one relax and takes one's mind off concerns with the program may also prove vital in maintaining energy and clarity.

Maintaining Perspective in a Dynamic Environment

The bilingual director has been depicted here as a person with one foot in each of two worlds. While the bridging of these worlds is essential to program success, this balancing act may not prove so easy. How does the director maintain a perspective in such a dynamic environment where the forces are constantly in flux?

Gaining this perspective is crucial to the ongoing development of the program, as well as the director's sense of sanity. There are a number of practical ways to work toward achieving this. Perhaps one of the most important is soliciting feedback: both personal, from key people who know him or her well, and programmatic feedback. Finding others "in the same boat" (for example, bilingual directors in other geographical areas) may help identify common problems and break through the sense of isolation that one often experiences. If at times the feedback seems negative, rather than becoming defensive or buying into an incapacitating self-blame, the director can view this information as "research data" which indicates what the next hurdles are. Even attacks can be examined with some distance: What is this person expressing that gives me information about the environment? What can I learn from this information?

Because the environment is so important in the success of the program, and is dynamic in nature, keeping a time perspective is important if one is to avoid excessive discouragement and unrealistic goals. Some method of documentation, however simple, may be an important reminder of stages in the evolution of the program. A photograph or newspaper article, notes from an early meeting or a quote (dated) from a nonsupportive community member can be compared with later events and provide some indication of changes in attitudes or issues, and a retrospective glance that places events in context.

Conclusion

The challenge for the bilingual director lies largely in understanding the qualities of the environment—its diverse, contrasting and dynamic nature—and being able to bridge the diverse worlds present in the program's larger context. Successes in this area will also inform the development of curricula, program, staff training and methodology. For, in differing degrees, the challenges faced by the director in walking between and among contradictory worlds are those that students, teachers, parents, and other members of the bilingual community face.

The dilemmas of moving in contrasting worlds and trying to make sense of one's own identity within and among these worlds is at the core of the meaning of bilingual education. The more effectively the director finds ways to walk between and among these worlds successfully, the more s/he can provide a model for parents, teachers and children also dealing with these dilemmas.

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This chapter discusses the roles of those in charge of bilingual education programs at the school level as they incorporate community resources, the interests of various community groups and individuals, the political and social issues of their school's communities, and the policy mandates of the local educational agency in their managerial design. The chapter assumes that bilingual educational programs are affected more directly by the characteristics, both social and political, of their communities than other educational programs; and that instructional programs designed to meet the needs of special populations require flexibility in establishing managerial role categories and characteristics.

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Introduction

Managers in charge of bilingual education programs have responsibilities to the school system that employs them, to the children charged to their care, and, to a degree greater than that felt by many other school administrators, to the community or environment surrounding their school. In this nexus of responsibilities, the professional bilingual educator or the school administrator who directs the bilingual component in a school may find some relationships with the local community and interest groups outside the school organization to be sources of great philosophical and political division as well as sources of support. The person who manages or who is being prepared for management of bilingual programs will find little in the professional literature that helps one deal positively with the local community and interest groups or resolve possible conflict and even less that assists in the practical day-to-day management of these relationships.

It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss some of the major theoretical issues attending the manager's response to the local community context; to review approaches to dealing with the local community and interest groups that offer some help; and to describe some situations encountered in the management of bilingual programs in New York City, where the authors have served the schools in various administrative capacities, all with an eye toward assisting the bilingual administrator or manager to conduct an effective specialized instructional program.

Three major areas of concern are discussed in this chapter: The bilingual manager as a professional member of an educational organization or system; the nature or characteristics of the communities that interact with bilingual education programs; and the shifting nature of managerial role categories in instructional programs for special populations.

Historical Perspective

Professional educators are quite skilled at developing "scientific" rationales for instructional programs and for the formal organizations we call schools. The truth remains, however, that most of our educational strategies derive from social and political concerns and from the interests of our citizens. Those citizens that have the greatest numbers, greatest wealth or most effective political organization usually find that the schools do what they want (Key 1964). Though the press often conveys the message that there is great dissatisfaction with the public schools in this nation, the opposite is normally the case (Salisbury 1980). Even at the peak of the national outcry for movements toward excellence in our public schools, a New York Alliance for Public Schools survey of parental attitudes toward New York City's schools, often assumed to be negative or hostile, indicated that the great majority approved of what their children were receiving from public school. This was seen as a clear "demonstration of the symbiotic relationship between the school organization and the environment that creates and maintains it" (New York Alliance 1983).

Bilingual education in the United States rises and falls with the ebb and flow of the economic and political fortunes of various ethnic/language groups throughout the country in an entirely consistent way. When California was inhabited by a population that was fifty percent Spanish-speaking, the schools were bilingual, the state government was bilingual, and all public laws were bilingual. Within a ten-year period in the mid-nineteenth century, the influx of gold prospectors shifted the population to ninety-five percent English-speaking. The schools almost immediately became monolingual and the state government mandated the use of English. Similar shifts occurred in areas of the country where German was taught and used in the community—Minnesota and Missouri—later in the nineteenth century. World Wars I and II, and their attending political and social emphasis on "Americanization," further moved the schools away from educational practices that had originally been developed in response to the community interests of their immediate environment (Cohen 1975). The often heard shibboleth, "My parents didn't speak English when they came to this country, and they didn't need bilingual education!" was simply not true for large numbers of immigrants during the nineteenth century.

The second wave of bilingual education in the mid-1960s was caused by the influx of large numbers of non-English-speaking immigrants as well. Schools, particularly in the southwest, were unable to cope effectively with the language problems of these new students in English language classes. The Bilingual Education Act of 1967 (Title VII) was the result of complex political processes involving both educators and community interest groups. Programs that were developed in response to Title VII were, initially, programs in search of a meaning. Theoretical bases were unclear and varied. Programmatic elements were diverse and inconsistent. Instructional practices were uneven. Those charged with managing the new bilingual programs were cast into a maelstrom where simple survival required heroic effort. Many of those placed in charge of managing new bilingual programs were from ranks other than those of traditional school administrators. Many were "teachers-in-charge" who, by virtue of their own ethnic or cultural heritage or language proficiency, were selected to lead and manage. These new administrators built on their relationships with, knowledge of, and empathy for the community they served. As bilingual education grew in the nation, a completely new professional class of licensed and certified "bilingual educators" was created, often to the bitter resentment of non-bilingual educators who charged favoritism and bias in the process.

Facing hostility and sometimes ostracism from their colleagues, bilingual educators turned to community groups and representatives for support, both political and moral. Educators fighting against the establishment of bilingual education countered with charges that community interest in bilingual education was being misrepresented. They argued that parents really wanted their children to become English-dominant as quickly as possible, to stop using their first language, and to be assimilated into mainstream American society. They also argued that English as a Second Language methods were better suited to these purposes and that bilingual education should be abandoned. Neither side had accumulated sufficient evidence to support its case and so the arguments often depended on the mobilization of political forces—the side with the larger numbers, more visible constituency, or better contacts with state and federal government, won the day. In recent years, however, systematic evidence has been accumulated. The New York Hispanic Women's Center 1984 presidential election exit poll indicated that ninety-two percent of voting Hispanics favored bilingual education (Miranda 1985); yet, at the present time only ten percent of those eligible for bilingual education receive it (Diaz 1983). Such discrepancies guarantee continued social and political pressure on the schools and continued complications in the life of the bilingual program manager.

The School Organization

Those who study school organization and organizational development face, in the latter part of the 1980s, the bewildering task of synthesizing research data collected from diverse and sometimes conflicting theoretical bases. Classical organization theory, with its emphasis on the mechanics of organizational structure, went aground on the shoals of human relations theory, with its focus on people in the organization. Social systems theorists, redirected by the work of political scientists and economists, have reintroduced some of the more mechanical elements of scientific organizational theory into their models. Recently, theorists have grasped at data collected by "qualitative" researchers, ethnographers and a hybrid group of organizational culture analysts sometimes called "culture-vultures" (Uttal 1983). Theory has moved from a view of the organization as a "closed system" to an almost universally accepted definition of organizations as "open systems" continually affected by external environmental factors and, at the same time, always affecting the external environment.

The factors leading to these shifts in research interests and subsequent redirection of theory are of particular interest to those engaged in bilingual education. The external environmental factors that began to bombard managers and administrators, for so many years safely ensconced in their virtually impregnable "closed" organizations—the public schools—were social and political movements and activities in the area of civil rights, public welfare, community control, decentralization of school systems, and their attending redistribution of power and political clout.

Those on the frontlines during the decades of the 1960s and 1970s felt enormous pressure, and their professional training left them poorly prepared to respond in ways that were either effective or socially sensitive. The training of school administrators, like that of managers in private sector manufacturing concerns and other public agencies, was based upon the internally oriented theories of organizations as closed systems. They knew, fairly well, how to develop institutional goals and objectives and how to define and protect the interests of their own internal staffs, but the interests of "outsiders" were hardly to be entertained. There was little official training in ways to accommodate the interests of parents, advocacy groups, community special interest groups, or ethnic populations with special or different cultural and educational interests or needs.

The good school principal, in the eyes of the central administration, was usually the principal who managed to protect the goals, regulations and reputation of the school system while also pacifying community interest groups. When the rules and regulations had to be bent in order to satisfy community pressure to alter school enrollment patterns or curriculum requirements, or when the resources of the school had to be distributed in ways contrary to district mandates, the principals were usually left to their own devices. The principals had to become what Lipsky (1976) now refers to as "street-level bureaucrats." These middle-managers were caught in the center of a power struggle fraught with economic, social, and moral pitfalls. If the principals chose to move too far in the direction of their community constituency, they would be labeled sellouts by their employers and possibly by their professional colleagues. If they spoke only the official line of the central administration, they would lose the trust and confidence of the parents of the children in their schools. All of their training taught them to protect the institution and to maintain the stability of the organization.

As late as 1982, Hersey and Blanchard could limit their discussion of the manager's response to the external environment to a mere half page, and admit, apparently reluctantly, that "reality dictates that organizations do not exist in a vacuum but are continually affected in numerous ways by changes in the society" (p. 139). The manager who turns to their text for help in adjusting to this newfound "reality" will come away emptyhanded, for they devote little of the text to such matters. Practitioners, as is always their lot, will have to wait for the researchers and theorists to catch up with their plight, and, in the meantime, will have gone it alone.

Some researchers have begun to define the limits of the problem, and new research has introduced new models including Thompson's "boundary-spanning" notion (1976) and Cohen's model of the effective school as a "moral community" (1980). The research is not complete and the concepts are not fully formed, but new understandings will lead to new ways of preparing our educational managers. The lessons to be learned by the researchers will come from those in the schools who have had to develop their own responses, from instinct or through trial and error. Successful practices will be noted, and theorists will shape them into patterns that others may follow, leaving unsung the administrators they have observed.

The trend is toward synthesis or convergence. Boundary-spanning is a model that recognizes the fact that environmental inputs are real and must be responded to, but that also sees the manager as one who must act as a protector of the formal organization. The boundary-spanning administrator is one who mediates, who must operate with one foot in each camp. When there are several camps, the footwork required is fancy indeed. Some would say organizational theory agrees only that there are systems. What those systems are and how they best operate is agreed on by few. As the work progresses, data will be drawn from all the models to shape a new view of systems and of the roles of those who work within the systems. The trend is toward more open, flexible views of what systems are, but the notion of system is constant. Systems are seen, traditionally, as having goals and objectives. What these goals and objectives are, whether they are formal or informal, public or private, group or individual, is uncertain. What is certain is that the goals and objectives are those of the systems and those who are part of the systems. The extent to which systems are "open" is the extent to which they are affected by interests outside the organization and to which they affect the goals and objectives of those outside, but, in either case, the systems own the goals and objectives.

This phenomenon has led to a peculiar crisis of power among community interest and advocacy groups that would change the lic schools. For these groups to remain apart from the schools, they must have their own resources, and support clearly separate and different goals and objectives. When the schools incorporate their goals and objectives, these community groups have no other reason to exist. When the schools accept the influence of the outside group, they deprive that group of its major reason for existing. When that reason is gone, the resources that have been gathered to support the group begin to disappear and the group must either disband, turn to other sources for support, or modify its reasons for existence. Increasingly, such groups as parent advisory councils for Chapter I and Title VII have turned to or have been legally incorporated into the school systems they were originally trying to change. Peterson (1974) found that the members of these groups were vulnerable to manipulation by the school professionals to whom they turned. The simple fact that separate advisory councils are created is seen as manipulation by some, since there are limited numbers of talented, committed and energetic community members to go around.

Nature and Role of "Communities"

Communities are easily defined by the geographical or governmental boundaries they occupy (East Harlem, 2nd Ward, Upper Eastside). Local community schools respond to all the inhabitants of the geographical limits of their zone. But communities may also be defined by social characteristics (the unemployed, the jetset), or norms and values (Catholics, Yuppies). They may be categorized by socioeconomic indicators (the poor, farmers, white collar workers). They may also be identified by the political positions or interests their members hold (New Left, Democrat). All these types of communities may exist within the environment of a school, but the school system most frequently attempts to maintain the simplest definition possible. When the boundaries of a community can be spelled out in geographical terms, those who belong and those who don't can be clearly identified. Though even the smallest geographical community will have varied ethnic and political communities within its boundaries, outsiders are more easily identified and controlled when physical limits are set. Communities sharing broader interests or values, such as civil rights groups, moral education advocates or environmentalists, may not be organized on a local level, yet may have much to contribute to or demand from the local school. Whoever controls the definition of what comes within the "community," also controls the community.

The school administrator, by law, controls the school. Should the administrator decide to share control of the school with the community, however it is defined, a series of questions have to be answered about the participating groups. Who are they? What do they need or want? Who are their leaders, and what are their skills? Can the school deliver on their demands? Can the school use their talents to improve instruction, organization, or management? What reorganization will be required to accommodate the sharing of control? Is the sharing of control a public relations effort, or does it have more substantive meaning? The questions are all of a political nature, for the decision to involve community forces in the operation of the educational organization is a political one, and the skills demanded of the administrator or manager are political in nature. Lasswell, in 1936, defined politics as "Who gets what, when and how?" These remain the key political questions for the school program manager.

There is much evidence that increased parental involvement in the instructional program of the school will lead to greater student achievement. There is not much study of the many variables involved in making that involvement effective, nor do we know much about the characteristics of effective parental involvement or the impact of such involvement on the parents themselves. But we do know that schools that stress improved student achievement would do well to develop a program that involves the parents of the children directly in the instructional process. Fullan (1982) feels that it is imperative. The consequences of this type of decision are substantial. Resources have to be marshalled, time allocated, staff informed and trained, and the parents themselves have to have assistance in their preparation. Few teachers or administrators are prepared in their preservice education to work effectively with parents or other members of the community. Yet it is just at this point of contact where things can go awry. Lightfoot (1978), arguing first that parents and teachers are engaged in complementary educational activities, extends her position by saying that, in order to help the child learn, the teacher must understand the family learning environment. She also notes that conflict between the parents and teacher is inevitable if the culture of the family is different from that of the teacher (Fullan 1982, p. 204).

There is widespread agreement that conflict is inevitable in the relationship between school officials and members of the community. There is almost as widespread agreement that such conflict is necessary and beneficial. Texts for school administrators warn them away from confrontational approaches to the solution of conflict. Public relations approaches or approaches that result in school/community "partnerships" are more commonly recommended. Both of these approaches can result in fairly overt manipulation of community interest groups. For instance, though there are over 40,000 parent teacher associations in American schools, the research indicates that the majority of these associations take supportive positions on most school issues rather than adversarial (Mann 1976). When advisory boards are formed for Title I or Title VII programs, they are often seen by nonparticipating groups or individuals as rubber stamp organizations, designed to meet the public requirement for disclosure rather than to encourage community participation more fully.

The point to be remembered is that the schools, and school officials, are in control. They determine whom to invite, what to tell them, and when to act. A common complaint from advocacy groups is that they are unable to obtain information from the school officials on matters of concern to their members. The control of information by schools, especially information that by law is supposed to be public domain, is a source of ongoing conflict between community interest groups and school officials. It is clear that interest groups, whether they have a desire to be supportive or to take more adversarial positions, cannot make sound recommendations, support their positions, or act in responsible ways if they have no access to pertinent information. Gittell concludes that public participation "is circumscribed by the lack of visible decision making, the shortage of information available to the public on most issues, and a deficiency in the means for participation" (1969, p. 173). On the other hand, no official, public or private, could expect to function effectively or efficiently if every act and every decision had to be reached in a thoroughly public fashion. Fullan (1982) argues that there are sound reasons for protecting teachers and other staff from public scrutiny during developmental or ruminating stages of problem solving. His position is that premature public disclosure will inhibit the change process simply by inhibiting discussion and consideration of unformed concepts and practices. It is at this point in the operation of public organizations that the goal of "equity" comes most directly into conflict with the other two major system goals, "effectiveness" and "efficiency."

Role Categories: Their Nature and Function

The public schools of the United States have become, in the latter part of the twentieth century, the largest business in the nation. A 100 billion dollar public service delivery system that employs 100 million persons and accounts for one-ninth of the nation's gross national product (Hentschke 1975) carries a great deal of political and economic clout. Those who manage that clout—from the educational leaders of the largest school systems to the heads of teacher organizations, to the principals of the smallest schools—recognized long ago that their clout could be multiplied through greater organization and professionalization. The achievement of their goal has led to extensive bureaucratization. The educators are separated from the public they serve by growing walls of specialization, certification and role distinctions.

These two trends, bureaucratization and separation, have often progressed simultaneously and in different directions. For instance, the growth and expansion of power on the part of teacher organizations and unions has introduced new points of conflict and disagreement with administrators and managers who function within the school system. One effect has been to protect school organizations from community pressure groups, thus increasing the schools' separation.

The doors of most educational bureaucracies are open to the public in only perfunctory ways, and those who do manage to come in and find their way through the labyrinth behind those doors may find the minotaur awaiting them more formidable than any faced by Theseus. The educational labyrinth is shaped, not by physical walls and passageways alone, but by human beings playing myriad roles. A parent, a community agency, an interested citizen who calls for information or assistance from even the smaller school organizations will be met by innumerable variations on the "It's not my job" routine. Crossing lines of authority and poorly defined specializations, particularly in newer areas such as bilingual education, is a complicated task for the public inquirer, since this questions the basic message of the organization. The school manager or administrator who genuinely wants to work in an open and collaborative way with the community faces arduous duty as a "boundary-spanner."

Certification, licensing procedures and legal mandates that apply to administrators but not to program managers establish role distinctions on a formal level. Professional organizations have moved toward the creation of certification categories for educational program managers, in recent years, and the distinctions are becoming blurred. School principals are required to hold current state, and sometimes local, certification as school administrators, while the manager of a bilingual program housed in a school may be a teacher assigned to the task. Many states, New York, for instance, do not certify bilingual supervisors, while localities, New York City, for example, certify bilingual supervisors separately. In New York City, the director of a bilingual mini-school within a larger formal school may be a teacher assigned without required state or local certification, even though the mini-school is larger and more complex than the rest of the school within which it is housed. No end of controversy surrounds this fact, and no end of confusion is caused among community representatives who usually find the working of the school system arcane even in its clearest form.

Some school systems hire an ombudsperson to mediate community complaints. The more successful ombudsperson programs have separated the office sufficiently from the organization to assuage doubts on the part of the community and to encourage open communication with all factions. The "detached" nature of this role implies that considerable discretion is attributed to the person filling the role and that the organization is willing to follow the discretionary decisions made or recommended by the ombudsperson.

Without an ombudsperson, the task must be completed by members of the organization—teachers, school aides, community workers—or by influential members of the community who will assume the responsibility and have sufficient interest in school-related issues to maintain a level of effort. In either case, the style of the administration will largely determine the success of the effort. An open-door approach to the community will guarantee a large amount of activity and a degree of communication, but it will not guarantee success. A closed-door approach, on the other hand, is a clear message of refusal to communicate, and, while it will seem to provide a buffer between the school and the community for a time, it really is an impasse.

We have noted earlier that formal organizational structures such as PTAs and advisory boards for funded programs serve as links between schools and their communities. Other formal organizational structures such as incorporated advocacy groups, social agencies and non-profit or community-based organizations may provide individual or group involvement with school programs. Elected officials or leaders from civic organizations such as the New York Alliance for the Public Schools are often, because of personal or organizational interests, the major link between school programs and communities. The varied nature of most communities augers against precise descriptions of the kinds of individuals or groups that will fill the community representative role in the linkage process, but it is clear that someone or some group must fill that role.

One of the major problems facing community groups is that of having too great a dispersion of influence and involvement among the different interest groups. School organizations sometimes diffuse this influence by giving interest groups roles on advisory councils. When the groups take such specialized roles they may forego larger influence in the total system, or they may undermine the power-base that associated interest groups develop. Fragmented, specialized, small community groups cannot operate with the force of large, united cooperatives.

However, once the roles are defined and representatives are selected, tasks that appear appropriate to community/school linkage efforts can be performed. Full partnership requires that all groups participate in the formulation of strategies, the implementation of programs and the evaluation of programs. As we have noted, full partnership seldom exists between schools and their communities, but the tasks remain the same regardless of the level of involvement.

No single educational situation can ever serve as the exemplar for all others, especially in bilingual education. But, lessons can be learned from all educational efforts, lessons that can illuminate the work of all educators in other locations. The following examples, derived from work in New York City, are presented in this spirit. New York City education is certainly different from that in other cities, but the general principles hold true.

An Example: Bilingual Programs in a New York City District

In 1974, implementation of the Aspira Consent Decree/Lau Regulations dictated changes in the New York City school system. The changes included a restructuring of community school districts and local schools, remapping the roles of principals/managers/teachers, and a revitalization of the community role in school affairs.

The Consent Decree requires that bilingual education be provided for all "entitled" Hispanic-surnamed students based on their percentile scores on English and Spanish versions of the Language Assessment Battery. The Lau Remedies specify inclusion of all other language groups in bilingual education programs. Community action groups outside the schools initiated the social effort that culminated in these legal landmarks.

Community school districts developed and implemented a variety of bilingual programs based on the number of students in need, student language proficiency, and the demands of the community. Some districts set up single-class units in individual schools for transient programs. Others converted entire elementary or junior high schools into bilingual schools. Still others, with larger numbers of Hispanic students, set up unzoned bilingual centers within existing schools to pool staff and resources for maintenance programs. Each plan required a different management hierarchy within the internal professional structure of the school or district.

In situations featuring isolated bilingual classes, the bilingual teacher serves as the source of information about bilingual issues for all segments of the school community—a unique role model for the professional staff and the parents, as well as for the students. Under this arrangement, the teacher's main allegiance is to the principal, who often cannot properly supervise bilingual instruction because of language/cultural barriers or lack of experience in bilingual education curriculum. The same obstacles hinder communication with the community. In this context, the teacher's role is shaped by the principal, and the major goal is to prepare students for mainstreaming within a given time frame by providing an intensive ESL course with major subjects in the child's first language. The nature of the curriculum depends on the teacher's knowledge of the first language(s) and what curriclum materials are available.

Districts that opted for the model in which entire school buildings are designated as bilingual schools usually were responding to the voices of strong, politically involved parents in the community. These schools were often managed by influential bilingual/bicultural principals and staffed by bilingual teachers and paraprofessionals. Among the common elements in these schools were:

1. A well-established educational philosophy, clearly communicated to teachers, parents and the rest of the community.

2. A management hierarchy that placed bilingual personnel in the role of school principal and support leadership. Assistant principals and grade leaders provided the support needed for moving the school toward achievement of organization goals and objectives.
3. Staff supervision and staff development that clearly reflected the principal's overall leadership style and educational philosophy.
4. Parental involvement that permeated all aspects of the program and is primarily shaped by the school principal.
5. Community resources that were well tapped and visible in the school.

Districts that formed open-zoned bilingual centers usually had a majority population of Hispanic students in need of bilingual education. The centers had relatively large populations, sometimes larger than the school that housed them. The centers were housed in regular public schools and headed by "master teachers-in-charge" who directed each unit. Thus, a new breed of bilingual managers was created, often in conflict with the older channels for professional advancement within the system.

Directors were identified and assigned by the central district office supervisor of bilingual education, rather than by building principals. The directors were responsible for the recruitment, selection and training of bilingual staff, program design and implementation, local school politics, curriculum design and development, test administration and program evaluation—in short, all the responsibilities of the school building principal except building maintenance. The directors were also responsible for promoting bilingual education in the community and involving parents in the educational process. There was little prior preparation or training and each director had to select or develop the most feasible personal leadership style to be effective in the school and community and to accomplish district bilingual goals and objectives. The directors were usually selected on the basis of successful bilingual classroom teaching performance. Their role was a quasi-leadership or administrative role with delegated responsibilities, but without the legal authority or salary that usually accompanies responsibility. The bulk of their task was managerial, but the lines were quite blurred, as we shall see. As managers of a new educational creation, directors were at once challenged by some building principals and by some bilingual teachers who often found themselves torn between allegiance to the main school and the bilingual center.

Further conflict arose because of the scarcity of information about bilingual education among the mainstream school staff and parents. Mainstream school teachers often took a negative view of bilingual education and felt threatened by the hiring of bilingual teachers, especially at times when teachers throughout the city were being laid off. Parents of both main school and bilingual students were concerned about the value and effectiveness of bilingual instruction. It often was unclear to them how learning in one's home language could assist in learning a second language. Parents living in low socioeconomic environments often wanted bilingual education to be an ESL immersion program with an immediate propelling effect on their children. This desire often led to conflict with a district supervisor who believed that bilingual education should be maintained from kindergarten through grade 9 in order to ensure proficiency in two languages.

Also involved in the controversy were the students who were pulled out of their local schools and sent to a new school center. Their sense of self-worth and attitudes toward schooling had to be addressed. Community agencies and resources became an integral support system for the bilingual centers. The community was used by the directors as a means of promoting their programs, a means of transmitting information and, most importantly, as a vehicle for infusing relevance into bicultural curricula that often lack appropriate learning materials and textbooks.

The most effective directors chose to take an assertive leadership role as the major spokespersons for bilingual education in the schools. Working cooperatively with the principal and the district supervisor, directors insisted on consultation meetings with the administrative staff to outline clearly roles and responsibilities in the school. Some directors chose program autonomy when too many communication problems arose with uncooperative administrative staffs. Continuously involving and informing the administration and the staff about bilingual education helped to ease some of the conflicts. As the new management hierarchy was presented and explained to bilingual teachers, the director's role was a supportive one, coming from years of practical classroom experience. This factor may eventually lead to bilingual teachers viewing directors as nonthreatening, supportive authority figures in the school. Constant reinforcement and gaining the trust and support of the principal strengthened the bond between directors and teachers.

Smaller school-within-school units allowed the director opportunities to know the students as well as their parents. Because the director's role in these settings more closely approximated that of a regular school principal, parental workshops in the family's first language helped bridge the gap between home and school. Community parent volunteer groups were invited to participate in the training of parents to improve home education activities. Bilingual parent advisory committees were formed in each school, and banded together to form a district bilingual parent advisory council that served to further inform, train and involve parents. Newsletters, workshops and an annual district-wide conference helped to instill parental pride and sophistication about bilingual education. Parental questionnaires and surveys conducted in the centers served to keep directors aware of the talents, skills and cultural knowledge the parents could share with the staff and students. ESL courses were offered in the centers to parents, as were typing courses, family living and sexuality courses.

In order to include and gain support from non-target parents, the centers readily accepted monolingual students not "entitled" to bilingual education. Often these parents became the strongest advocates of bilingual programs. Because of the emphasis on cultural heritage and ethnic pride in the schools, the parents had more reason to see themselves as necessary and important people in the centers. As their understanding, acceptance and involvement grew, their positive views of bilingual centers became apparent throughout the community, and they began to influence others. They became opinion leaders.

The director's surveys of parental needs and skills led to an inventory of the resources in the community that can be used in the schools. Local museums, local artists, merchants, businessmen and social welfare agencies were contacted by the directors. The central district office personnel, local school board members and locally elected officials were contacted and used as sources of information about the community. The directors had to be politically aware and sensitive to the hidden political agendas within the community school district. The bilingual district supervisor and other district level personnel were sought for counsel before any commitments to projects in the centers were made. The various medical, housing, food stamp and welfare offices had to be familiar to all the directors, for their contact with parents in need of these services overlapped with and sometimes predominated over parental concern about the education of their children.

There were outside agencies that dealt with drug abuse, child abuse and psychological and marital problems at home. Parents with little knowledge of the English language, who lacked sophistication in dealing with these agencies, came to the bilingual centers to seek help. The centers became a refuge for parents in need of vital services. Working hand in hand with social agencies, the directors had to be concerned with improving the quality of life for the families they served, if educational gains were to be achieved.

Community medical institutions and social agencies had to be contacted for assistance in the psychological and educational evaluation of bilingual students in need of special education classes. The district's Committee on the Handicapped that is supposed to provide teams of psychologists, social workers and educational evaluators, lacked bilingual personnel who could speak the parents' or students' first language. The resources were in the community for such testing, and the directors had to take the necessary steps to involve them.

Conclusion

Being the director of a bilingual center means becoming a self-made political, educational, and social machine that can handle the internal school conflicts and the external social factors, and still focus on the educational needs of bilingual students. Effective directors find, over time, that they gain the respect of their internal school colleagues. Such respect never comes simply because they are able to work effectively in the community. It is given, even if reluctantly, because the children in their care show marked academic and social growth. The best bilingual managers are often described as skillful politicians; those who succeed must elevate their political skills to the highest levels. Successful bilingual managers must recognize and be able to use power; they must know how to compromise, to negotiate, to identify and deliver resources and to motivate individuals with diverse interests toward common goals. They must know the rules of the school system and be able to move smoothly in the less restrictive environment of the larger community.

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Bilingual programs are often funded through the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs of the Department of Education in Washington, D.C., under Title VII grants, or through state-mandated programs which vary from state to state. Bilingual program directors need to know what rules, regulations, and laws apply to their programs and how to establish relationships with federal and state officials. Funding, technical assistance, training, and the forming of legislation which shapes bilingual programs are crucial matters for the bilingual program director, and they are largely related to programs and resources at the governmental level. How state and federal agencies, state legislatures, and the Congress provide a context for the bilingual program is explored in this chapter.

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Introduction

This is a chapter that will perhaps raise more questions than it answers. It certainly will suggest more food for thought and more of how to think about a situation or problem than it will offer solutions. It will attempt, however, to give readers the information, insight, guidance and clues they need to work toward more positive and beneficial relationships with relevant state and federal governmental entities.

Education in the United States is a decentralized phenomenon, that is, it is in the hands of the more than fifty states and territories each with different sets of educational laws or codes and each with its own separate school system. Given this situation, the prospect of raising questions rather than giving answers, and of speaking in generalities rather than specifics makes sense. In most other parts of the world education is a centralized matter which has been placed in the hands of a ministry of education, that normally prescribes what the elementary and secondary curriculum for the nation will be and even which textbooks will be used. Uniformity rather than diversity characterizes such national school systems. The minister of education is usually a member of the national cabinet (Gutek 1983) and parental and community involvement and input as we know them for the most part do not exist. Since major decisions regarding curriculum and textbooks are made by a central authority, the ministry of education,which is under governmental control, what the federal role in education is or should be in other countries is not necessarily a matter of dispute or debate in the same way as it is here.

Significant federal involvement in education in this country began in the 1960s with such federal legislation as the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965. The Department of Education with its cabinet level Secretary of Education was signed into law in October 1979.

P.L. 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Act, was passed in 1975 and mandated a free, appropriate public education for all handicapped children between the ages of three and twenty-one (Shepherd and Ragan 1982, p. 470). However one wishes to look at it, this education law deliberately aimed at influencing and controlling state and local education agencies by requiring them to create and fund educational programs for the handicapped.

While Title VII of the 1968 Elementary and Secondary Education Act did not mandate bilingual education, school districts that choose to establish Title VII bilingual programs and to avail themselves of the accompanying federal monies have to abide by federal regulations. The 1974 *Lau v. Nichols* Supreme Court decision which is enforced by the Department of Justice's Office of Civil Rights, does mandate the establishment of programs that will enable limited English proficient students to have equal access to the curriculum. But that decision does not mandate bilingual education as such.

The Lau Remedies, issued by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare in 1975 to assist state education agencies (SEAs) and HEW in obtaining voluntary compliance with Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, do outline several programmatic approaches appropriate for limited English proficient students, including bilingual and ESL approaches, and are used in evaluating the compliance plans of school districts, but they do not mandate bilingual education. In spite of these and other developments the federal role in education in the United States is a hotly debated issue and is subject to change pending Presidential action and public and Congressional support.

Although the membership of school boards and school committees in school districts across the country are either elected or appointed locally, school boards and districts are the creations of state law and are, therefore, subject to it. State departments and boards of education are likewise creations of state law and were established to insure that the policies of the state legislatures and state boards of education be carried out in the school districts. The state department of education, the state legislature and the state board of education are, therefore, three state level entities with which a school district and bilingual program should have a relationship. If decisions are made that affect local education agencies, the state courts are a possible fourth entity. To describe the specific nature of those relationships on a state by state basis is beyond the scope of this chapter. But, to raise the question of what the nature of those relationships is or should be and what the bilingual program director should be concerned about and aware of regarding those relationships and their potential effects on the bilingual program is the purpose of this chapter.

Local school districts and bilingual programs are all "open systems;" they do not exist in a vacuum. They are consequently open to the control of the legislature, the state board, department of education and the state courts as they are to the influence of parents, community and other educational programs. The question is how open? How autonomous or how subject to state control is a given school district in a given state? That depends.

Some states are reputed to exercise close control over school districts, which are often entire counties, while school districts in other states are known for their traditional resistance to state control. Some states have textbook adoption systems which produce lists of approved books from which local districts may choose those they wish to use for instruction. In other states, such a procedure would be unthinkable. In fact, in some school districts, teachers operating at the same grade level often use completely different sets of textbooks for reading, math and other basic subjects. In some states bilingual education is mandated and in other states it is not.

Be that as it may, school districts with bilingual programs and directors of those programs, depending on their funding sources, will have to consider seriously their relationships with state and federal governments. A relationship with the state education agency is inevitable since school districts and school boards are creations of state law.

Under the federal government, especially if one's program is federally funded, a bilingual program director may have to be concerned about relationships with the Department of Education, Congress, the Office of Civil Rights and federal courts. Even if one's bilingual program is not federally funded, a relationship with the Office of Civil Rights will no doubt be in order because of the need to comply with Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Equal Education Opportunity Act of 1974, and, by extension, the implications of the *Lau v. Nichols* decision and other decisions, which apply to all school districts throughout the country.

In the last analysis, the bilingual program director must bear in mind that where a local bilingual education program is mandated by state law or where it has been established as a matter of compliance with Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act and the *Lau v. Nichols* decision, the law, regulations and the Lau Remedies specify program requirements in terms of structure, staff, curriculum, student identification and eligibility, testing, evaluation, mainstreaming and parental involvement. One of the fundamental tasks of the bilingual program director is to assess the degree to which the program complies with all legal requirements and, if it does not, to take positive steps toward bringing the program into compliance.

The Bilingual Program Director in the Local School District

Status of the Bilingual Program Director

In order for a bilingual program director to ascertain where s/he and the program stand with respect to various relevant state and federal agencies, s/he will have to determine first his/her relative status within the local education agency (LEA). This can be done by looking at the position the director has within the school district. For instance, does the bilingual director deal directly with the school board, especially at board meetings, or does the superintendent or another higher level administrator address the board instead? Where is the bilingual program director located within the administrative hierarchy of the school system?

The director's "real" title may give a clue: is it head-teacher, coordinator, manager, supervisor or director? To whom does the director report? Is it to the superintendent, federal grants supervisor, director of curriculum and instruction, director of elementary and secondary education? How many administrative layers are there between the director and the superintendent? Further, how well are the relationships the bilingual director has with the superintendent and the school board working? Are those relationships positive and are the superintendent and the school board supportive? What can the director do to improve those relationships in order that they might have a beneficial impact on the program?

Responsibilities of the Bilingual Program Director

The next step is to take stock of what the bilingual director's responsibilities as a local school district official are toward the SEA's division of bilingual education. Communication channels between the director and the SEA must be kept open. Does the local director know who the state bilingual director and relevant members of his/her staff are and, more importantly, do they know who the local director is? Further, the director may want to think about the degree to which s/he should keep the SEA informed about his/her program, especially when information is requested or required. Is the flow of information taking place at all? What impression does the SEA director have of the program and is it accurate?

Another responsibility of the bilingual director is to be aware of all legislation, state and federal, which affects the bilingual program, not just bilingual legislation. What effect, for instance, does P.L. 94-142—The Education for All Handicapped Act—have on the bilingual program? If handicapped children are identified within the program, what compliance or programmatic issues arise and in what ways will the bilingual program work with the department of special education? To what degree is the bilingual program in compliance with general state laws and guidelines on curriculum? Are the students in the bilingual program receiving all required courses, such as American history, even if they are taught in their native language?

It is most important to realize that the bilingual program cannot function in isolation and that, for the sake of its continuance and growth, it must interact effectively not only with its own LEA but also with the SEA and the federal government in the ways specified by legislation and regulations.

Capacity Building and Long-Range Planning

To work toward capacity building, the director must know not only his/her own program, i.e., its goals, structure and inner workings, but also its position within the school district's total educational plan. But what is capacity building? Briefly, it is the process whereby a school district develops its ability to address the needs of limited English proficient students through programs that are institutionalized within the district. Generally speaking, the programs are continued as part of the district's regular education program whether or not outside funding sources are used initially. Such capacity building can take the form of separate programs or departments. On the other hand, the bilingual program can also become an integral part of other existing departments within the district, such as special or vocational education, which can develop or absorb bilingual capability.

Unfortunately, bilingual programs are often looked upon as appendages, compensatory in nature, or something existing apart from the mainstream educational program. One must seriously examine what is the case with one's own program and what one wishes to do about it. One way of answering this question is to ascertain where one's program fits into the school district's long-range educational plan. Is the program indeed perceived as an integral part of that plan and as something that will be around permanently or at least for an extended period of time? The major question, perhaps, is where does the director want the program to figure in the district's educational plan and what must s/he do to see that it gets there?

There is another facet to long-range planning, and that is on the state level where legislation is enacted. To be effective in this area, a bilingual program director must keep abreast of developments on the SEA level. For instance, in a state which was revising its curriculum regulations and graduation requirements, bilingual educators did not comment on how the proposed changes would affect the limited English proficient (LEP) children on a long-range basis. Now many in that state are complaining about the disadvantageous effects of the legislation on the bilingual child. Bilingual directors, therefore, must study new education legislation as it occurs on the state level as to how it will affect bilingual children and decide what they want to do about it. (In fact, they might want to take initiatives in proposing or backing relevant legislation.)

Getting Support and Help for One's Program

To obtain support and help for one's program, one must first uncover its needs for support and technical assistance. Directors of one or more programs may, for example, wish to preserve the benefits of existing bilingual legislation for which reforms or changes have been proposed at the state or federal level, or may wish to create a more favorable climate toward bilingual education in the educational or local community. Professional organizations are good places to obtain support for such matters because they are made up of like-minded individuals. One has the option of choosing national organizations, such as Teachers of English for Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE), or their regional affiliates.

The bilingual program's needs for technical assistance can be met by going to the appropriate federal and state agencies. Bilingual Education Multifunctional Service Centers (BEMSCs), for instance, provide workshops, conferences and training on the classroom level in many relevant areas. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Centers (EDACs), which are preparing for phase-out, have for many years provided curriculum materials in a number of languages as well as specialized help in testing and evaluation and, more recently, in computer applications. National Origin Desegregation Assistance Centers (NODACs) give technical assistance workshops in many areas, especially in areas of compliance. Trying to identify such organizations and agencies, the types of services they offer and whom to contact can be time consuming activities. SEAs, because of their broad exposure, are in a position to assist LEAs in identifying such valuable resources. But one must first determine what one needs.

SEA as a System and Office

Although the scope and nature of the activities of the fifty state departments of education vary considerably from state to state, each department acts as a support, resource, and overseer for local education agencies in certain standard ways. There are four major areas in which the SEAs may be geared to help LEAs in establishing and carrying out their programs.

1) *Funding.* State bilingual funds are often the main or sole source for the initiation of a bilingual education program in school districts where there has been an increase in the number of limited English proficient students. When a needs assessment or census has established that such a need is sufficiently great, the school district is ready to contact the appropriate state education officer (often, but not always, called the director of bilingual education), to find out what the state regulations are and what the procedures are for applying for state aid. (Not all states have funds available for such purposes, and the bilingual educator who wants to start up a new program should check on this early, in order to be prepared to seek other sources if necessary.)

In addition, many bilingual programs have been funded from Title VII funds administered through the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA) of the Department of Education in Washington. But this is not the only source of funds in Washington, and the SEA is again the resource whose representatives can advise LEAs as to which is the appropriate federal agency to apply to for funds. These funding sources would include, in addition to the specific bilingual education funds under Title VII, Chapter II block grants, educational aid passed by Congress for refugee children, legislation for immigrant families, and equal opportunity legislation.

2) *Monitoring.* The SEA monitors the bilingual programs within its state to make sure they follow the state or federal guidelines for their particular grant, contract, or program. More will be said about this later in discussing the role of the SEA director or specialist.

3) *Technical assistance and training.* These functions are a concrete effort on the part of the states to provide LEA directors, teachers, and others with the information and skills they need to operate their programs successfuly and effectively. Many states with sizable bilingual school populations and programs hold annual statewide bilingual/ESL conferences for LEA program personnel. Some hold regional conferences within the state, while still others hold summer institutes for directors and teachers who may even be able to earn college credits for such work.

4) *Interpretation of federal and state laws and regulations.* This function of the SEA applies both to the time when the LEA is seeking funds and must make a grant or contract application, and also during the conduct of the project, when it is important that the project comply with the federal or state laws and regulations. When state and federal laws and regulations are not clear, or when they seem to be conflicting, SEA personnel can help clarify what is required. In general, federal laws supersede state laws and have priority over conflicting or less protective state laws (Roos 1984).

Knowing Your SEA

Considering the critical ways that the local program is dependent upon the state department of education—which may include anything from the financial to the educational to the legal to the constitutional—the program manager will do well to learn as much as possible about the state department, the way it operates, and especially about its people. What position does the SEA bilingual director occupy in the SEA organizational hierarchy? What is his/her title? Is s/he a consultant, a coordinator, a supervisor, a director, or a chief? The title gives a clue as to the solidity of the state commitment to bilingual education and may tell something about its range of services. How responsive the state bilingual director is to political currents may also be indicated by whether s/he is a civil servant or an appointee.

In addition to knowing what place the state bilingual director occupies in the state hierarchy and political setup, the bilingual manager should also know what kind of personal background the state director has. Does he or she speak one or more languages other than English? Does he or she have a background in teaching bilingual classes or ESL, or in the administration of such programs? It will make a difference as to whether the state director has classroom experience or not. Persons who come in from a university position will relate differently to the LEA and its problems than will someone who has known these problems from working in the midst of them. It is a question of whether the director is research or practitioner oriented.

What position does the state bilingual director take on such matters as educational equity under the Civil Rights Act? How does he or she feel about the quality of education offered to migrant children? Does he or she have any special knowledge about or leaning toward providing special education services for bilingual students? The answers to such questions will tell the bilingual program manager something about what s/he may expect for his/her own program, or for any emendations or additions which s/he may be contemplating.

In some cases, no new person is brought in to fill the state bilingual position, and the new director, promoted from within the SEA, may come from one of the specialized fields mentioned above, such as migrant children or special education. This will make a difference in how the state bilingual director's role is handled within the state department of education—it will affect his/her relations with other departments, with other programs, with other sources of funding. And it will have something to do with his/her special knowledge relating to bilingual education problems.

Also important to know is whether any duties are assigned to the bilingual director in addition to those associated with bilingual education, or whether the position was set up solely to serve bilingual students, their teachers, and the local program structures. This will have a bearing on the kind of time and resources the state director and his/her staff will be able to offer the local bilingual program.

The bilingual program manager who takes the trouble to know his/her state bilingual director along the lines suggested will have gone a long way toward demystifying the state director's role, and will accordingly have a better idea of the ways in which the state resources can serve the local program.

SEA Director's Roles

Because the state bilingual director is a government employee, s/he does not act as an advocate for bilingual education, except within the system or in specially defined testamentory roles. The state director's roles are, however, multiple, and can be understood as falling into three main categories: that of an administrator within the SEA; that of program person and advisor to all bilingual educators within the state; and that of a regulator, a monitor/reviewer of programs who guarantees that guidelines are being followed and the public trust is being honored. A brief description of those roles follows.

1) *The SEA bilingual director as an administrator.* The director's level within the state governmental organization determines his/her effectiveness as an administrator. The scope of his/her authority is built into the job description, and that depends upon a number of factors many or most of which are outside the purview of both the state and the local bilingual directors. Another consideration is how much outside work is assigned the bilingual director. Sometimes this comes in the form of assignment to task

forces which may have nothing to do with bilingual education, but which generate some form of input required by the state government at that time.

2) *The SEA bilingual director as a program person or advisor.* This is the role in which the local director will know the SEA bilingual director best. S/he acts to help design and set up programs, to develop and refine curricula, to seek out resources which may aid educators throughout the state, and to give technical assistance in all manner of educational matters from library search and research to the setting up of state-wide educational standards. Most well-funded state departments of education are able to provide instructional aid to teachers and administrators: workshops, conferences, and personal contact. This kind of instruction is designed to help the newly appointed bilingual director or his/her specialized staff plan and run the program, to enhance the professional qualifications of those who are in the process of becoming teachers, and even to help transform the mainstream teacher into one capable of dealing with students who are limited English proficient and who come from diverse cultural backgrounds.

3) *As a regulator/monitor.* It is helpful to think of this role as similar to that of auditor. The monitor looks at legal and regulatory compliance—how closely the program is following its original contractual or grant plan, how closely it is monitoring its monies and sticking to its budget, how it is doing as far as its time schedule is concerned.

Many times bilingual program managers fear that when the state bilingual officer comes for a monitoring visit it actually means s/he is coming to "check-up" or evaluate the program. Evaluation is an entirely separate process, generally performed independently of the SEA, whereas monitoring refers only to the contractual and legal aspects of program functioning.

State Regulations and Laws

State law may require compliance in a number of different critical fields: curriculum requirements at the grade level or as a prescribed progress through the grades; teacher certification; alternative staffing policies; emergency certificates and waivers; qualifications necessary before hiring program specialists and consultants; adherence to standards in competency testing and testing policies in general; basic matters such as number of hours of instruction required per year; and a number of other matters which must be determined for each state.

Federal Legislation and the SEA

The latest version of the Bilingual Education Act, P.L. 98-511, passed by Congress in 1984, grants the states monies, to be not less than $50,000 per state, to carry out the monitoring and technical assistance duties for Title VII and other bilingual programs within their boundaries. This is in accordance with previous legislation which has recognized the regulatory relation of the states toward their lawfully established school districts. But this legislation also takes into account the current Administration's policy directed toward getting the federal government out of the business of funding bilingual programs. The process by which bilingual programs are to become locally supported is called "capacity building," discussed in a previous section.

The technical assistance and training programs offered by the states to the LEAs, therefore, have as one of their purposes to institutionalize methods for serving limited English proficient populations, that is, to make them a part of the local school or state education programs instead of a more or less temporary emergency measure requiring outside help. Toward this end, other types of programs than the strictly bilingual ones, where classwork is offered in the students' native language, are now accepted as a part of the national effort to provide education for limited English proficient groups. A certain proportion of programs are now being funded by bilingual monies which do not use the students' native language at all in the classroom, but only as a medium to help students understand English-given classwork better. This turn in the commitment to bilingualism at the national level will have a pronounced effect on the types of services offered by the SEA. For those states which have made little commitment to bilingual education, a certain pressure to advance will be relieved. For states whose commitment was early and whose programs are stable and flourishing, technical assistance activities will undoubtedly remain the same, but the states must now look increasingly to their own resources to fund such activities.

Another area in which federal legislation affects the operation of the state departments of education is the area of materials development. The network of services provided for bilingual education under earlier federal legislation allocated funds for the development of texts and other professional materials in the native languages of the student groups being served. Recent legislation has eliminated that function for federally-funded agencies and contractors. From now on, the local education agencies are asked to provide those materials for themselves, from their own resources. Since very few local school districts have the means for developing such materials, a logical place for them to turn is the state department of education. But state departments of education historically have never been desirous of nor responsible for the development of textbooks for students. Instead they have served as advisors and regulators of textbook adoptions made at the local level. This development away from public sector bilingual text development has an effect on the activities of state departments of education, already reported by some of them, in that their function of giving advice and aid in the selection and adoption of texts is frustrated by lack of appropriate, tested, accredited materials.

Regional/Intermediary Offices

Some states and territories are widespread enough and/or have sufficiently dense populations to warrant setting up regional offices which are extensions of the main state offices in the capital. Examples of states which have these regional offices are Massachusetts, Texas, and New York. The regional office is not only more available geographically to those programs near it, but its staff is also more closely in tune with regional interests, knowing local needs and resources from firsthand experience. New York State has a Board of Cooperative Educational Services, which is in addition to the regional offices, and which is an intermediary unit or school district that carries out functions for the SEA. It is linked to the vocational education system, but may also respond to other special needs such as bilingual education.

The bilingual director will learn of these resources of both the geographical and the programmatic kind from his/her SEA office, and will be able to utilize whichever ones are available within the state in order to enlarge the scope of the local program.

Where Bilingual Education Fits in SEA Structure

The bilingual education program manager should learn how his/her state is going about institutionalizing bilingual education, that is, how the SEA is fitting it into its organizational structure and what kind of educational philosophy colors its adoption.

The state bilingual education program may be created within the state organization as a separate entity, whereby anyone who calls for information will easily be referred to a "bilingual education department." On the other hand, the state may place its bilingual division under some other department heading; vocational education, for example, may be given a bilingual education component. In that case, the telephone caller may experience more difficulty in finding the specialist which s/he needs.

The SEAs are now under notice to take over more of the responsibility for bilingual education than before, under the new federal legislation and the prevailing policy of the Department of Education. However, the states have varying responses to increases in limited English proficient population as they occur within their borders. Whether the bilingual section has been established as a separate entity with its own upper echelon director will make a difference to the local program director who must deal with these populations, and who must know his/her SEA organizational structure in order to use its services to best advantage.

The State Commissioner

In getting to know one's state department of education, a factor not to be overlooked is the chief state school officer of education, whether s/he be called commissioner, superintendent, or secretary. Much that happens in education will of course depend upon the strength of the chief state school officer and the governor who may have appointed him/her. The amount of power that the commissioner has can affect what the SEA will do in relation to proposed legislation, both at the state and at the national level. A strong commissioner will be able to do effective work in favor of strong education programs, but one who has little political power or whose power comes from a constituency which wishes to reduce the funding of educational programs and their range, will not be helpful to the goals of the bilingual program director.

LEA Influence on Governmental Policy

States maintain offices in Washington, D.C. which make the state's position known to the Congress when legislation is being framed, and to the Administration whose recommendations are sometimes decisive in shaping legislation. These liaison offices provide a good pipeline for the local director to key in both the state and federal personnel on local bilingual developments and needs. The program director's experience gained in the field can be valuable input for decision makers at the federal level, and s/he should not be shy about transmitting it to the proper persons.

The local director should also think in terms of mobilizing others who share his/her concerns in order to express the needs of the bilingual community. There are many task forces, liaison groups, professional associations, and action groups at the community, state, or national level, which may wish to make common cause with the local group. Or the local group can start off on its own, using letters, phone calls, and sometimes even workshops, to bring in people who want to improve the educational opportunities of limited English proficient students within the school district.

In any case, the local director need not think of his/her own program as a closed system or as limited in influence to its immediate surroundings. The bilingual program director must face outward, must reach beyond his/her own system and learn to utilize the greater resources of the larger systems of which it is a part.

Department of Education and OBEMLA as Systems/Offices

Department of Education and OBEMLA Are Legislative Creations

The Department of Education and OBEMLA are legislative creations which means they are subject to modification or even elimination. Further, OBEMLA directors are appointees, i.e., they have party affiliation. These are facts of American political life.

BEMSCs, EDACs and the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE) are likewise legislative creations. The Bilingual Act of 1984, Title II of P.L. 98-511, makes no mention of EDACs, which means they will cease to exist at the termination of their funding period. Materials Development Centers (MDCs), which developed the materials printed by EDACs, were essentially dropped from federal legislation several years ago. The 1984 Act created several new entities, among them Evaluation Assistance Centers. All these agencies provide or provided a type of product or service. They are or were the means created by Congress whereby OBEMLA offered technical assistance to the local Title VII programs it had funded.

Knowing which federally funded agencies are still in force, what types of services they give and to whom, how to obtain the services and where the agencies are located, are all areas in which SEAs can provide information to LEAs.

Various Federal Agencies to Know

OBEMLA is the agency which funds Title VII bilingual programs. Its own structure has changed over time in accordance with its needs or the perception of its needs. The 1984 Bilingual

Education Act, for instance, states that OBEMLA "shall be organized as the Director determines to be appropriate in order to enable the Director to carry out such functions and responsibilities effectively, except that there shall be a division, within the Office, which is exclusively responsible for the collection, aggregation, analysis, and publication of data and information on the operation and effectiveness of programs assisted under this title" (NCBE 1985, pp. 22-23). While the Congress has given the Director wide latitude in organizing OBEMLA, it has specifically defined a segment of it.

The function of monitoring federally funded bilingual education programs has been delegated to the SEAs. The 1984 Bilingual Education Act states: "State programs authorized under this section may also provide for the review and evaluation of programs of bilingual education including bilingual education programs that are not funded under this title" (NCBE 1985, p. 21).

Directors whose programs are funded through OBEMLA are assigned a program officer who is an OBEMLA staff member. The functions of program officers include coordinating the proposal reading process, receiving and ranking proposals for funding, processing of grant applications, providing information about specific programs, and assisting LEAs in interpreting the law, enactments and regulations. They also approve programmatic changes for grants already in operation.

Financial aspects of Title VII funded bilingual grants and contracts are processed by Assistance, Management and Procurement Services (AMPS), an office entirely separate from OBEMLA. AMPS negotiates contracts, issues funding and approves changes in one's budget.

The General Accounting Office (GAO) conducts two types of audits for federally funded programs. One is a financial audit which investigates whether a program is complying with EDGAR or the Education Department General Administrative Regulations. The regulations pertain to all federal education programs. No. 34 of the Code of Federal Regulations, Part 75, is the part of EDGAR which deals with federal grants. When the term "audit exception" is used by GAO, it simply means that, as a result of a financial audit, a question was raised and substantiated to the effect that funds were expended for purposes other than those outlined in the program proposal. It is extremely important that bilingual directors keep careful and complete records of all monies spent. If one's program is to be audited, one must be prepared to make an accurate accounting.

The second type of audit is programmatic and seeks to determine whether a program is fulfilling its goals and objectives. It is equally important, therefore, to maintain on file data and evaluation reports assessing the degree to which one's program is addressing stated goals and objectives. When planning and budgeting for program evaluation, it is advisable for the bilingual director to keep the possibility of a GAO audit in mind.

Knowing which of these entities to contact to obtain information and assistance is important. Again, SEAs work with these governmental agencies constantly and are, therefore, the most readily available aid to help LEAs identify the appropriate agency to contact.

Inner Workings of OBEMLA

Ordinarily the legislation which created it provides OBEMLA with few guidelines on how to operate itself. The instance cited above which requires OBEMLA to have a division for collecting, aggregating, analyzing and publishing data and information is a case where the Act was specific. In any case, if one's program is funded through OBEMLA, then it is necessary to become more closely acquainted with the inner structure and workings of OBEMLA. While its inner structure does change frequently, a basic structure seems to persist and that is that under the Director are several division chiefs, usually two or three, among whom are divided the overseeing of the various categories of programs that OBEMLA funds. At the present time there are two main divisions, the Division of National Programs and the Division of State and Local Programs.

It is appropriate for a Title VII local director to know not only who his/her program director is, but who that officer's upper level administrators and division chief are. The program officer is the vehicle of communication between the LEA director and OBEMLA. It is the program officer who relays information to the upper levels of management in OBEMLA.

Another major vehicle for coordination between OBEMLA and the "field" has been the Annual Title VII National Bilingual Management Institutes. Three of these occurred between 1977 and 1979. In 1981 there was an OBEMLA Leadership Colloquium and in the same year three regional management institutes were held by the EDACs at the request of OBEMLA. The significance of these events was the communication that passed between OBEMLA staff and the SEA and LEA directors who attended from around the nation.

On the one hand, the workshop sessions conveyed to participants the status of the law, regulations and management of

OBEMLA. The "field," on the other hand, not only absorbed this information, but had an opportunity in workshops, general sessions, meetings and individual talks to ask questions and communicate its problems, needs and concerns. Another such vehicle of communication is the meetings and workshops on new regulations that OBEMLA has convened with SEA directors.

Yet another means OBEMLA uses to convey information on legislation and regulations is the application packages it sends out for those who wish to write proposals for grant programs and funding. Among other things, these packages contain the authorizing legislation and relevant excerpts from the *Federal Register* announcing the call for proposals and from the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR). Contract applications, e.g., BEMSCs, are announced in the *Commerce Business Daily*. Questions on federal regulations and applications for grant programs should be addressed to program officers.

It must be remembered that OBEMLA proposes new legislation or amendments for the Secretary of Education who in turn develops the education legislation that is eventually presented by the Administration to Congress. Impact on federal legislation can therefore be achieved through one's representatives in Congress or through OBEMLA. The SEA director represents the state department of education to federal officials and to LEAs.

Whether or not one's program is federally funded, it must be borne in mind that federal legislation sets the tone for the nation. If federal legislation stresses ESL and minimizes native language instruction, so will many SEAs and LEAs follow; if program evaluation is a national priority, so will it become at the state and local levels. Even though one's program is not federally funded, it may still be affected by developments in Washington.

Office of Civil Rights

The Office of Civil Rights (OCR) comes under the Department of Justice, a part of the executive branch of the federal government. OCR enforces federal statutes and directives for eliminating national origin discrimination. Four relevant documents relating to the elimination of discrimination which impact on bilingual programs are the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title VI; the *Lau v. Nichols* 1974 decision of the U.S. Supreme Court; the Equal Educational Opportunity Act of 1974; and the Lau Remedies of 1975.

Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act bans discriminiation based on race, color, or national origin in any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance (Center for Law and Education 1975, p. 19). In 1970 the Department of HEW issued a policy statement which included the following statement: "Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students" (Center for Law and Education, 1975, p. 21).

In 1974, in a class suit brought by non-English speaking Chinese students against officials of the San Francisco Unified School District, the U.S. Supreme Court upheld this policy statement. In 1974 the Department of HEW issued a document which outlined educational approaches which constituted appropriate "affirmative steps" to be taken by a non-complying school district "to open its instructional program" to students who had been prevented from effective participation. That document is called the "Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful under *Lau v. Nichols*," or simply, the Lau Remedies (Memorandum for Chief State School Officers, 1975). The Lau Remedies are still in force and are used to evaluate school district compliance plans, that is, plans intended to eliminate Title VI violations resulting from exclusion of limited English proficient students from equal access to a system's curriculum. National Origin Desegregation Assistance Centers (NODACs), formerly known as Type B General Assistance Centers, or "Lau Centers," were established to assist school districts desirous of developing compliance plans.

The Office of Civil Rights is charged with enforcing the 1964 Civil Rights Act and the *Lau v. Nichols* decision. OCR does not monitor or investigate all school districts for compliance. It audits some districts and some are declared not in compliance and are obliged to develop a compliance plan. OCR usually orders such districts to establish programs with district funds, and not to supplant district funds with federal funds.

Bilingual program directors ought to be aware of OCR rules and regulations, the Lau Remedies, and the other documents cited, as well as their own district's status with respect to compliance. It is a fact of American political life, however, that OCR will temper its activities according to the views of the administration in power. While the Lau Remedies are still in place, more stringent rules proposed in 1980 by the Department of Education were withdrawn by the Secretary of Education in 1981.

It is clear that the *Lau v. Nichols* and other related decisions extend well beyond Title VII programs and into such areas as bilingual vocational education, programs for refugee children, and emergency programs for the education of immigrant children.

Legislatures and Representatives: Federal and State

The Federal Congress and the LEA

At the federal level, the bilingual program director needs to know who the backers of bilingual education are and who the power sources are. This means finding out more about the workings of Congress than merely the names of one's own delegation. The significant names in bilingual education legislation or of those in the opposition may come from any state and an intelligent follower of the ins and outs of Congressional action on the subject will study the entire roster.

In addition to having knowledge about the persons who are active on the Congressional scene, the bilingual director should also understand how federal legislation works. What subcommittee or subcommittees are currently involved in developing recommendations on bilingual education later to be presented on the House and Senate floors? It is not always easy to track down the correct subcommittee which is having hearings on the subject in which one is interested, but it is at this point in the legislative process where crucial definitions and guidelines are developed. If the bilingual director can attend these sessions, or have a deputy report to him/her about them, or read some publication which keeps current on these matters (such as the *Education Daily)* s/he will develop an understanding of where bilingual education is, politically speaking, at the present moment.

Lastly, the bilingual manager needs to know what state and national groups can aid in presenting ideas and needs to Congress. At the national level, NABE, TESOL, La Raza, and other organizations will come to mind as organizations whose resources may be tapped, depending upon what kind of policies are being considered, and what kind of action the local director is thinking of taking. Other approaches may lie in channeling help for bilingual students through other programs, such as vocational education or special education. This requires learning how to contact the power sources in those fields who may be accessible to ideas coming from the bilingual education field, and who may be able to key those ideas into legislation dealing with related educational needs.

Lobbying and the Hatch Act

One other technical assistance task the SEA can offer the local bilingual director is to advise when his/her advocacy of the needs of his/her student population brims over into lobbying activity, which, if s/he is receiving federal funds, is forbidden under the Hatch Act. The Hatch Act prohibits active political electioneering or advocacy of programs using the time, money, resources or personnel of federally funded programs or agencies.

However, unless there is an internal restriction which is placed on the agency where one works, one *can* contact state or federal legislators as a private citizen or as a member of a private professional organization. As such, one can speak one's piece, bringing one's special expertise to the problem.

The line between the two cases may sometimes become delicately drawn, and that is when one should turn to one's SEA officer who can help to determine what action to take.

Getting to State Legislators

The majority of school funding is from the state, and therefore it is very important to be familiar and at ease in dealing with one's state representatives and the laws and customs which govern their behavior. When one approaches these legislators, who may be from one's district and know its problems intimately, one might want to bring other local people along, such as parents who are interested in setting up new programs, or other community people who speak for the area. If there are other districts where large pockets of limited English proficient students reside, individuals from there who share one's interests may be convinced to come along.

It is most important to know the inner workings of one's state well enough to have lines of approach to the state legislature, for it is here that the programs proposed for one's state will stand or fall. Some states have already completed the course of establishing bilingual education programs within the total state system; others may not have done so. If one's state is among the latter, and if one believes from one's knowledge of the needs of one's own district that further action at the state level is needed, then one may wish to influence that policy. Whatever the case, it is important that the problems of bilingual student populations not be solved solely by those who are "up there," but that the bilingual educator at the local program level will believe that s/he also has access to the state level of government, and can provide some specialized input on important educational issues.

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This chapter examines aspects of designing and implementing the inservice training component of bilingual education programs. First, the research on effective schools, effective inservice education and capacity building is reviewed. Next, needs assessment and analysis are discussed in depth. Finally, an overview of training resources is provided, along with a brief description of innovative inservice training programs which promote capacity building.

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Introduction

Your budget has been negotiated. Staff has been hired and is in place. Parents have been informed of the existence of the program. Instructional placement is underway. You, the project director, are starting to shift out of the adrenalin ridden "it-needs-to-be-done-yesterday" mode into the more relaxed "it-needs-to-be-done-an-hour-ago" existence that accompanies the start-up phase of most new projects. Now is the time to start thinking about implementing those training objectives that appeared in your proposal.

Why start now? After all, the first inservice day isn't for another couple of months. Frankly, given the nature of training in general, and the depth and breadth of most training associated with bilingual programs in particular, you can't start too soon. Additionally, the training component of most bilingual programs usually serves as the catalyst for informing people of program goals and objectives, building support for the program, and for providing a focused environment through which team building occurs. So you see, you do need to start thinking about training now. Think of it as a long-range process rather than as a series of inservice days and parent meetings. Think about it as you would the instructional portion of your program, with growth taking place over time as a result of sequentially acquired learning. Think of training as you do teaching: geared to individual needs, designed to achieve certain objectives, presented in a variety of ways to account for different styles of learning. Yes, it's time to think about training.

Training Research

Is there any one way to guarantee the success of an inservice program? Probably not. But there are some general factors which, if taken into account, seem to render inservice programs more effective. Most research on instructional improvement has indicated that inservice programs consisting of a single session are largely ineffective (Lawrence 1974; Nicholson, et al. 1976). In fact, participant change, like organizational change takes time and tends to be achieved in steps (Berman and McLaughlin 1978: Devore 1971; Lieberman and Miller 1981). The implication here is that teachers need to be given the content of inservice education in small chunks and over time so that concerns can be addressed as they arise and new techniques can be given a chance to take hold.

Little (1981) examined the climate in which inservice occurs and found that staff development efforts were more likely to be successful where "a norm of collegiality and experimentation" existed. In other words, in programs where teachers shared ideas about instruction and techniques, staff development tended to have greater impact. Additionally, administrative support for participants, the creation of a "team" atmosphere, has proven to be an influential factor in the success of inservice education (Lieberman and Miller 1981). Programs which foster feelings of self-efficacy, heighten self-expectation, and employ the notion of "deference" to participant expertise tend to promote significantly more change than programs which fail to consider, or fail to address, these factors (Sparks 1983; Little 1981).

The degree of active teacher participation in both the planning and implementation stages of inservice education tends to influence the degree of success of such programs (Nicholson, et al. 1976; Devore 1971). Programs based on giving information and demonstrating, a combination of theory and practice, followed by a supervised trial and concomitant feedback are more likely to result in success (Joyce and Showers 1980; Reisner 1981). Programs marked by concrete objectives, tailored to fit district/classroom specific situations tend to be more successful than "packaged" programs, especially with regard to management approaches (Berman and McLaughlin 1978).

Determining The Needs

While most proposals include an assessment of training needs to determine the type and scope of training program which should accompany the instructional program, it may be helpful to review, revise and readminister a needs assessment after the project has been funded. Often project staff has changed since the proposal was submitted and, in many cases, additional staff members have been hired.

The design of the needs assessment instrument becomes critical at this point. While a generalized topic listing requiring a simple check-off may be helpful in the proposal writing stage, an instrument of this kind yields such broad information that it becomes almost impossible to discern what the needs really are.

A case in point. Five staff members have checked off the topic "ESL" as one of their needs. One person teaches at the high school, one at the junior high school. Three others are aides in the elementary grades. The two secondary staff members have graduate degrees in applied linguistics. One has had three years of experience working with secondary ESL students. The other is fresh out of school. The aides are all in the process of completing a training course offered by the local university. Two are parents of children previously enrolled in a bilingual program. One is a university student completing a B.A. in Economics.

For purposes of identifying broad topic areas of need, it is helpful to know that each of these staff members wants or needs training in ESL; but for purposes of planning and delivering a training program for these five staff members, just knowing that they need help with ESL is not enough. The brief descriptions of the various staff members provide sufficient information to indicate that very different kinds of ESL needs may be operating here. However, without additional information from each of the staff members, it becomes impossible to design training that will be meaningful to each. Just as we examine students on an individual basis, so must we make an attempt to examine the individual needs of those who will be trained. The more information on the expressed needs of the participants, the more likely the chances of providing a training program that actually trains.

Getting the Information

In general, almost any needs assessment instrument that is open-ended will provide an opportunity for participants to state their needs more fully. However, needs assessment instruments which use kernel statements allow attention to be focused on a general topic area while allowing each participant to indicate specific concerns. For example:

- Some ESL techniques that I would like to learn more about are ______________________________.
- Some ESL materials that I would like to learn more about are ______________________________.
- Some problems that my students have with ESL are ______________________________
- Right now, the thing I need to know most about teaching ESL is ______________________________.

These kernel statements help to identify individual areas of need. While they may be difficult to compile statistically, they will allow for analysis of trends of need. More importantly, the information gathered through the use of such statements will allow for planning a program of prescriptive assistance. The statements tell you what it is that people feel they need to know in order to perform more effectively. Additionally, the instruments satisfy a key requirement of successful inservice programs: they allow for the active participation of trainees in the planning stage of the program.

Program Needs and Individual Needs

Once comprehensive needs assessment information has been gathered, certain need "categories" tend to establish themselves. These "categories" are of two types: program needs and individual needs. Program needs may be defined as those that the group to be trained holds in common, i.e., the need to be trained in curriculum development, the need to be trained on ways of encouraging parental involvement, the need to receive certain basic information about the language and cultural groups to be served by the program.

Individual training needs, on the other hand, tend to reflect the experiences, skills and theoretical background that each staff member brings to the project. Individual needs tend to color the way in which program needs are perceived. For example, if you are a first year teacher concerned with acquiring specific classroom management techniques that will allow you to make it through the day without losing either your temper or your sanity, your perception of your need to be trained on a topic such as "program goals" would be slight at best. Individual training needs tend to reflect the nitty-gritty business of each day. They are the straws which, if left unattended, pile up to break the back of the program.

Long-term and Short-term Needs

In addition to classifying needs as program or individual needs, it becomes important to clarify which needs are long-term and which are short-term. Making realistic decisions about which needs can be met through a one-time treatment of a particular subject (and these needs are relatively few) help the project director avoid a common syndrome: a perception on the part of the people being trained that their needs are not being met. This sense of unmet expectations is a source of potential trouble for any training program, since what usually follows is an increased level of frustration and a resistance to participating in any further training.

If we examine the two previous categories of need (program and individual), we see that long-term and short-term needs are a function of both. Long-term program needs for training seem to arise from the philosophical roots of the program: How do we go about implementing the kind of program we proposed? How do we get our curriculum to be sequential and integrated? How do we get and maintain commitment to the program? How do we build our relationship with the community? Clearly, these are training issues that run the course of the program. Long-term individual training needs arise from the desire of the individual to become a more complete professional. They reflect such issues as the acquisition, modification and renewal of a theoretical knowledge base. They acknowledge a need not only for professional growth, but also for personal growth as a result of working and life experience.

Short-term needs, on the other hand, reflect a need for a shot in the arm; a "quick fix" that can rejuvenate and invigorate. The expression of short-term needs often indicates a place where one is temporarily "stuck." They are humps in the training road that need to be gotten over, so that the process of achieving long-term training goals can continue.

In a program sense, think of these needs not as a need for curriculum, for example, but for materials. They are not a need for developing student placement systems, but rather a need to know about a single test. They are not a need for attitudinal change, but rather a need for sensitization. In other words, on a program level these needs are part of the continuum of long-term needs, but they tend to be more self-contained. They are important needs in that in meeting them you tend to move away from being "stuck" and are able to advance along the continuum of long-term needs.

In an individual sense, short-term needs may also be seen as being more self-contained: the mastery of a particular technique, rather than a whole methodological approach; the development of a particular lesson, rather than the development of the ability to plan lessons; a way of dealing with a troublesome student, rather than a course in classroom management. Again, these short-term needs, once taken care of, move you away from being "stuck" and allow you to give attention to the bigger picture.

Tapping into the Resources Available

Perhaps the most subtle of tasks related to the planning and delivery of inservice programs is being able to get a good fit between the training needs of a given program and the resources available to meet a particular need. Resources are available on many levels (local, state, regional, national), from many sources (the program itself, the school district, community agencies, colleges and universities, state departments of education, federally funded assistance agencies). The trick that each project director must master is being able to match to optimum advantage the best of what each resource has to offer to the need it can address most effectively. This trick, in addition to providing the right kind of training in any given instance, also allows the project director to use best whatever training funds are available.

Need some on-going assistance with parent involvement? Your local community agencies are probably a good resource. Need some help with finding out about state approved tests? The state education agency is probably a good bet. Have a special task force that you need consultants for? Check with your local college or university.

Generally, you should become aware of the training repertoires and responsibilities of the agencies listed below. Many are funded to provide (at no cost or minimum cost to the district) training and technical assistance services. Some, like the Bilingual Education Multifunction Support Centers, are set up specifically to work with programs on a long-term basis. In any event, knowing the kinds of services that are available helps you diversify your inservice offerings and stretch your training budget.

Sample Listing of Resources

The following is a sample list of resources to be considered in developing inservice programs. Information, referrals, and consultants may be obtained through surveying corresponding agencies in your own area.

Local Resources

- your school district (various departments, e.g., evaluation, resource centers, training resources)
- community agencies (libraries, non-profit organizations, ethnic organizations, clubs, civic groups)
- local industry
- colleges, universities (those with federally funded fellowship and training programs and those without)
- neighboring school districts with programs similar to yours

Statewide Resources

- state department of education (various departments, regional centers, etc.)
- consortia
- industry
- colleges and universities (those with federally funded training programs and those without)

Federally Funded Technical Assistance Organizations

- Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Centers
- Bilingual Education Multifunctional Support Centers
- National Origin Desegregation Assistance Centers
- National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
- National Center for Bilingual Research
- Agencies of other government programs (vocational education, special education, adult education, etc.)
- National Institute of Education

Information Sources

- National Center for Educational Statistics
- National Institute of Education Regional Laboratories and Research Centers

Professional Organizations: Local, State, National

- National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE)
- Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)
- American Educational Research Association (AERA)
- Society for Intercultural Education Training and Research (SIETAR)

Consulting Firms

Capacity Building Resources

While often overlooked as a resource, the people most directly involved in the program can often serve as providers of training. Teachers who have several years of experience, teachers who have recently finished coursework at colleges or universities, aides who have developed particularly effective materials or techniques, parents who have worked at home with their own children, community liaisons who have developed strategies for working with parents are many times excellent sources of information and effective providers of inservice training. The advantages of using one's own staff or community are many: the creation of a cadre of "in-house" experts; the establishment of a team atmosphere; an acknowledgement of the efficacy of program members; an intimate knowledge of the program and people being trained; in short, on-site, on-going, on-target assistance.

Innovative Practices

Districts have also begun to explore the feasibility of using program members as trainers through the following innovative techniques:

Exchanges

This strategy matches two people with similar responsibilities and allows them to observe one another. Exchanges may be designed to operate on a person-to-person, school-to-school, or district-to-district basis. They may involve one observation or several observations over a period of time. These observations are *non-evaluative* in nature. Goals of the observation are decided in advance and the observation is followed by a feedback session. A written report on the nature, goals and accomplishments of the observation is then developed.

Assistance Teams

This technique establishes (on a voluntary basis) a team of teachers, aides or parents, etc., who agree to act as a resource to their peers. Those who wish to get input, feedback or problem-solving help may approach any of the team members and schedule a session. Prior to the session, any relevant data the team may need is collected. Observations are conducted at the request of the party seeking assistance, but are not required. The identity of the person requesting assistance is kept confidential by team members. During the scheduled session, team members brainstorm possible solutions to the problem brought before them. The person who requested the session is then free to choose among the many alternatives offered to him by the team. The chosen alternative is implemented. A follow-up session may be scheduled if more assistance is needed.

Conclusion

While the design and implementation of an effective training program requires time and effort, the payoffs are well worth the investment. The project director will find the task simplified if the following considerations are taken into account:

- Research has shown that certain strategies, designs and implementation techniques result in more effective inservice experiences.
- Comprehensive needs assessment which requires participant involvement tends to produce information critical to the development of an effective inservice program.
- Needs tend to be both long-term and short-term.
- Both program needs and individual needs should be considered in the design of the inservice program.
- There are a variety of resources available to assist in the design and implementation of training programs.
- The assistance of program staff in the design and implementation of training has been shown to be a valuable resource to inservice education.

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Unit III

Special Issues in Bilingual Program Management

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The management of bilingual education programs involves many interrelated and interdependent tasks that call for effective strategies for working with people and for accomplishing technical functions. People-centered tasks have already been examined in Units I and II. Technical functions, which are the topic for this unit, focus on processes or things rather than people. In addition to being important, technical functions are often time consuming and require specialized knowledge and skills. The most crucial technical tasks facing the bilingual program director, such as proposal writing and evaluation, have been selected to form the base of Unit III.

To be effective, the bilingual program manager must be proficient in all three managerial domains explored in this book. However, the competent performance of technical functions will not only enhance program effectiveness and the director's ability to operate successfully with internal staff and external organizations and agencies, but also will mark the difference between a substandard program and a program of excellence.

Nevertheless, the director is not expected to be a specialist in all of the technical functions s/he is called upon to perform, but s/he must be sufficiently knowledgeable and skilled to manage these functions well. Above all, the director must have enough expertise to select, communicate with, delegate tasks to, and supervise qualified internal staff or outside specialists. S/he must also educate the various technical personnel employed by the program in the multilingual/multicultural dimensions of the program so that they will perform their tasks appropriately as well as effectively.

In order to enhance the bilingual program director's technical knowledge and skills, the chapters in this unit were purposefully sequenced to be used in a logical progression beginning with the obtaining of money. They then proceed to the development of a meaningful, culturally relevant, unified curriculum; evaluating the effect of one's efforts, and employing computers as a managerial tool. Although sequenced logically, the chapters in this unit can also be used separately as part of an in-depth study of a single issue. This is possible because the writers have combined sound theory and practical advice within their respective chapters and have outlined actual stategies for meeting specific situations.

Program directors are usually faced with writing at least one proposal for state and federal funding agencies per year. Creating an educational program on paper in accordance with state or federal guidelines, often under tight timelines, can be a difficult and complex process. Proposal writing can thus become a very frustrating and time-consuming exercise. In the first chapter of this unit, Dr. Eleanor Sandstrom, who has extensive experience as a director and proposal writer, addresses the issue in a logical, step-by-step manner. She discusses such topics as how proposals are born, locating funding and assistance, obtaining support for one's proposal, formulating a plan of action, developing the proposal and refining the document for final submission. This is a chapter that one may refer to again and again, as one refers to a dictionary or encyclopedia, or it may be used as a checklist of procedures to be followed when writing a proposal.

Many excellent and worthy proposals have been written, but only those that have been accepted and funded are successful. With a successful proposal or with the initiation of any new bilingual program, comes the task of developing a curriculum which meets the needs of the students being served. As those of us in bilingual education know all too well, the field is relatively new and many gaps exist in available curricula and materials. In Chapter 10, Dr. Betsy Tregar, a Title VII director and former Lau Coordinator, raises a number of important issues in bilingual curriculum development and suggests a number of useful strategies in dealing with them. She begins by examining the steps in funding, evaluating, adapting and developing a meaningful, relevant curriculum. She then proceeds to discuss the decisions to be made, the individuals who need to be included in the development process and the various actions that must be taken. By referring to this chapter, the bilingual program director will derive time-saving methods with which to formulate the often mammoth task that bilingual curriculum development is, as well as methods to improve and enrich an existing curriculum.

That accountability, in its most positive sense, is the guarantor of sound, meaningful education as well as of effective and competent management is a statement that is at times grudgingly acknowledged and often difficult to live up to. Nevertheless, the program director must have an objective assessment of what s/he and his/her team have set out to accomplish and hard questions must be asked and answered. To what degree has the program attained its objectives? Has it accomplished what it set out to do in the program's proposal? If it is a curriculum development project, has the curriculum finally produced met the needs of students and teachers? In Chapter 11, Dr. Robert Consalvo, formerly president of an evaluation firm, and Ms. Mary Madaus, an experienced evaluator, present an extensive yet practical overview of program evaluation. The array of topics includes the rules and definitions of evaluation, detemining evaluation questions, defining the role of the program manager in the evaluation process, formulating evalution designs, adhering to evaluation standards, selecting a program evaluator and contracting for evaluation services.

Data collection and management, usually discussed as a component of program evaluation, is such a vital and involved task that it has received separate treatment in Chapter 12. In this chapter, Drs. Lisanio Orlandi and Joseph Foley, both experienced practitioners in evaluation, offer two innovative strategies that can be employed in the collection and management of evaluation data. Referring to these strategies as heuristic, i.e., a rule of thumb or a device which drastically limits the search for solutions in a large problem area, and as algorithmic, i.e., a set of steps which guarantees a solution, the authors explain how to use these strategies in order to arrive at a comprehensive answer concerning the worth of a bilingual program. This and the preceding chapter will be of great importance and use not only to the director and his/her evaluators(s) but also to students and teachers of research and evaluation methodology in colleges and univerities.

Having explored the technical functions of proposal writing, curriculum development and evaluation, what options are available to assist the director in the performance of these complex tasks? In the concluding chapter of this unit, Dr. Richard Willard, a practitioner experienced in computer applications for management and education, presents a very succinct and extremely practical compendium of the various uses for which the educational manager can employ computers in a cost-effective way. In the course of this chapter, Dr. Willard also shows the reader how to determine a program's need for a computer and how to select a computer and computer software. Dr. Willard concludes by demonstrating how a plan to use computers is determined and put into action.

Even a casual reading of this brief overview of Unit III will no doubt convince the reader that few individuals can be experts in all the technical areas investigated in the various chapters. For this reason, the chapters in Unit III have been written in a readable style intended to give the director an understanding and insight into each technical area and to provide information and strategies needed to manage technical functions competently. All this has been done to assist the bilingual program director in creating for the students in his/her care the program of excellence they deserve.

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This chapter deals with why and how a proposal is born, how to locate funding sources and where to seek assistance. After taking the reader through the formulation of tentative plans for creating the proposal, the question of the task's feasibility is discussed. When the decision is made to go forward, the chapter describes in detail an action plan and provides specific procedures for developing a proposal. The tasks involved in writing the proposal and preparing it for final submission to the funding source are also discussed in detail. Suggestions are given for meeting to be planned, their sequence, and who should attend. Guidelines are given for describing goals and objectives, the instructional program and program evaluation.

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A Need is Perceived for Writing a Proposal

Generally, proposals are written to secure funds in order to provide for the possible educational needs of students and/or school staff for which the local educational agency has little or no funds. Some things that may occur to you for the use of such funds could be to initiate a new instructional program or a new instructional approach within an existing program. You may want to expand a successful program or introduce new hardware for instruction or develop new curriculum materials.

Perhaps you perceive a need for additional teacher training and have learned of some new ways to implement a staff development program that you would like to try. You may have read about the need for parent education programs to involve the parents more closely in the educational experiences of their children. You feel that you would like to try to reach the parents and have some ideas for doing this, but you need funds. You may want to initiate a new model of school organization or support a new organization of schools. There may be a new state or federal regulation affecting the educational services to be provided to students.

There are abundant student, staff, and community needs to be served in every school and school district and there is a wide variety of ways for meeting these needs. There are also many possibilities for funding to assist you with your plans.

Discuss the Need for a Proposal with Various Constituencies

Meet with your supervisory staff and program coordinators to discuss their perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the ongoing program in such areas as the curriculum, the instructional materials, student achievement, staff performance, physical plant, parent support of school activities, and the school principal's attitude and commitment. Explore with them their perceived needs of students, staff, and parents and ways in which these needs could be met. Develop some tentative plans for a proposed project.

Meet with members of the research and evaluation department of your LEA (Local Education Agency) to apprise them of the tentative plans and to request reports on achievement tests in language arts, reading and mathematics for the school district and for the possible target population(s) to be served. Also request a report on the economic status of the target group. This information is usually required by the funding agency. Discuss the pre- and posttesting that might be used with the tentative target group, the questionnaires that may be needed, a needs assessment, and an evaluation design. Develop a tentative projected timetable for meetings with parents, teachers and principals, and for staff development, testing and evaluation.

Meet with the federal projects executive director of the LEA to share your tentative plans and seek assistance in locating possible funding sources and the regulations and applications for same.

Contact the district superintendent or superintendents if your proposal will serve schools in several districts of the LEA. Describe your plans and seek consent to go forward. If you sense that the attitude of a district superintendent is negative, try another school in another district of the LEA. Of course, the parents can encourage a change of heart, if you care to go in that direction.

Meet with the principal of each school that might be involved in the proposal. Since the principal is the educational leader of the school, a positive, cooperative and receptive attitude is needed for implementation of the program to be installed in the school. Suggest that the principal plan a meeting with his/her school staff and parents of the students to be involved in the project. At this meeting, where the principal will preside, you and your supervisory staff will be invited by the principal to describe the proposed project and seek approval from those in attendance to go forward with the planning. Be sure to list the names of all persons who attended the meeting.

Maintain an open line of communication with your immediate superior officer regarding the status of the proposal, the meetings that have taken place and will take place and extend an invitation to him/her to attend a meeting.

Contact your SEA (State Education Agency) liaison for suggestions and recommendations. Ask what funds may be available for the tentative plans that have been made and the guidelines. Discuss the salient points of your plans.

Contact federal grants offices in Washington, D.C. to see what funding priorities and what regulations and guidelines govern the submission of a proposal. Some suggested offices are: the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA), the National Endowment for the Humanities, Chapter I, Early Childhood Education, Special Education, Vocational Education, Adult Education, and Higher Education. Obtain copies of the *Federal Register,* a publication which contains a listing of programs to be funded and the guidelines for preparing proposals seeking funds. Your office of federal projects, the SEA and some libraries have copies of the *Federal Register.*

Decide the Question of Feasibility

After you have made your tentative plans, but before committing yourself to the task of formally writing the proposal, reexamine the level of available funding to decide whether the funding could be sufficient for your total proposal or for the major part of it. You may decide that the amount of available funding from a specific source is not worth the time and effort to be expended.

Read the guidelines very carefully for receiving the funding. Determine if you and your school or school district will be able to comply with the guidelines in terms of personnel, program, evaluation, preparation of reports, fiscal accounting, dissemination, commitment and capability to carry on the program after outside funding is terminated.

Take another look at the submission date for the proposal. Will you be able to have all the required data assembled? Will you be able to hold the required meetings, both public and in house, before the submission date? Will you have enough time to collect the required supportive documents, the approval letter from your SEA, the support letter from the non-public schools, and the various signatures required for proposal completion? Will you be able to prepare the proposal—the writing, editing, proofreading, copying—by the submission date? *If you cannot meet the submission deadline, you will have to decide to scratch the effort for the time being and try another route.*

Develop Your Action Plan

Now that you have decided that the development of a proposal is feasible, that the tentative programs you have formulated have value and you sense approval and support from the various constituencies with which you have been in contact, you are ready to develop a plan of action.

Prepare a Needs Assessment

Establish the need for your program through a needs assessment. The needs assessment should reflect the entire school district population by number of pupils in grades K-12; a breakdown of numbers by race and ethnic origin; a report of standardized scores in language arts, reading and mathematics achievement tests by grade, race and ethnic origin.

The needs assessment should then describe the target group to be served by indicating the school or schools, the grade or grades in which the students are enrolled, their ethnic origin, their social and educational needs, and their scores on systemwide standardized tests in language arts, reading and mathematics. Other measuring instruments will reflect the linguistic competencies of LEP (limited English proficient) students in English and in their home language. The number of students in the school system from low income families and the number of program participants from low income families should also be included.

This information is usually maintained on computer files in the office of research and evaluation or in another administrative office in the school district. The student data should be current, clearly stated and presented in table form. Staff from the office of research and evaluation or from the office of federal projects should be able to prepare or help prepare these data.

Data concerning staff, parent, curriculum, and specialized student needs may be obtained through questionnaires. These instruments often call for the respondents (e.g., school staff, community members and parents) to rank order priority needs which have been previously determined through meetings, discussions, and informal surveys.

Establish the Target Area to Be Served

Your proposal should indicate which school or schools, which grade levels and which students will participate in the project. Describe your rationale or justification for the choice of school or schools and students. Be sure to invite the participation of the non-public schools in the planning and implementation of the proposal. This is obligatory for many funding sources. You will need equivalent tables of student data for the participants from the non-public schools.

Be Innovative

Think of something new, exciting and essential in the educational experiences of the group to be served. Explore new educational trends and opportunities for funding innovative curriculum design, experimentation with new educational technology, development of curriculum materials, and research and evaluation of diverse learning styles.

In your school district, meet with the director and key staff members of the office of federal projects and the office of foundation grants in order to find out what the possibilities are for funding sources. Seek information regarding state funds that might be available to the school district for innovative programs and, also, what funds might be available within your own school district or within a school for new approaches to learning.

Choose a Funding Source

From the information and recommendations you have gathered when meeting with the directors and staff of the offices referred to in the preceding section, you should decide for which funding source and for which RFP (request for proposals) you will write a proposal. Your decision will be based on the specifications of the proposal content in the RFP, the requirements for proposal development, the amount of funding, the submission date for the proposal and the projected acceptance of the proposal.

Prepare a Description of the Proposed Program

The description of the proposed program should contain a clear statement of program goals, which should be based on the need, and on process and product objectives, which should be derived from the goals. Specify who will be served and the entrance and exit criteria for the program participants. Explain *in detail* how the participants will be served. For example, will they have large group, small group or individualized instruction or a combination of all three? Give your reasons for your choice. Will the small groups and individualized instruction be supported by an aide and a teacher, an aide, or a peer tutor? Will students have access to a multimedia bilingual learning center or to a computer to support their regular classroom instruction? If so, explain how this will be arranged.

Describe the content of the curriculum: language arts, mathematics, social studies, etc.; the language or languages of instruction; the contact time for instruction in each language and in each content area; the instructional materials to be used in English or the home language, both commercially and teacher prepared textbooks, and instructional aids. Include a description of the proposed activities and teaching strategies.

Discuss the expected outcomes of the program for each group of program participants—students, teachers, aides, parents, and administrators. Indicate how and when participant achievement will be measured—the instruments to be used; the increments of growth in achievement and/or in behavior modification.

Estimate the approximate cost of the program. Be sure to include the LEA's contribution in terms of the number of teachers, supervisors, aides, administrators, researchers, secretaries, etc. involved in the project as well as the costs covered by the LEA for instructional aids and equipment.

Describe the various dissemination activities that will take place to publicize the project such as newspaper releases; open house at the project site(s); demonstration lessons at staff meetings both school and system-wide; radio and television interviews; presentations at local, state and national conferences; and development of slide and/or videotape presentations.

Be sure that you have verified with top administration the commitment of the LEA to continue the project after termination of outside funding. Include a statement to this effect in your proposal. If the LEA has continued other programs after outside funding, cite these as examples of good faith and commitment.

Determine Staff and Staff Needs

Be careful and judicious in determining needed staff. Some funding sources do not pay for teachers since the teachers are to be provided by the LEA to serve the students. You may need one or more curriculum developers, resource specialists, aides, peer tutors, a program coordinator, a researcher, a clerk typist and a secretary. Specifically define the duties and responsibilities of each position you are asking the funding source to support, and the anticipated salary. Include a listing of staff with their duties and responsibilities in central office and at project sites who are paid by the LEA.

Ongoing staff development should be described in detail for staff already on board and newly acquired staff. Meetings with staff and with parents should be planned to orient them to the new program and its goals, objectives, curriculum, instructional materials and evaluation procedures. Workshops should be scheduled that deal with methods of teaching the various content areas; the history and culture of the ethnic groups participating in the project and in the school-wide programs; how to utilize the services of aides and peer tutors; how to group for multi-level instruction; and how to use the new instructional materials and the new hardware. Some meetings and workshops may be geared only for the aides, others for the teachers, parents or students.

Supervisors, resource specialists, teachers from within the program, the school, or outside the school may serve as workshop leaders. Publishers, at times, provide consultants to speak on the use of their instructional materials. Skillful teachers may present demonstration lessons. Arrangements may be made for one or more teachers to visit a creative teacher in another school or in the project site. Project participants may attend conferences or enroll in college courses. College and university staff can serve as workshop leaders.

Incorporate your plans for staff development in your proposal indicating the theme of each workshop or meeting, for whom it is planned, how many workshops, etc. will take place during the year and the rate of compensation for workshop leaders and participants.

Environmental Concerns

It is of prime importance to keep the public and non-public school administrators and staff informed when initiating the proposal during the stages of its development and final version, and about the outcome of the efforts, that is, whether the proposal was funded. Initially, meet with each principal individually to share your plans and seek his/her participation and support. Then meet with the principal and staff. The third meeting will be with the principal, staff and parents. Include some representative students if the program will function in a secondary school. To finalize your plans, have one joint meeting of principals and representatives from the various project sites where a tentative, preliminary outline of the proposal will be given to everyone for discussion.

At the outset, you will discuss the planned project with your SEA liaison for technical assistance and support. You will also discuss the plan with the public and non-public central administrators for their consent to go forward and their support. You will maintain ongoing communication with the principals, staff, and parents of the participating schools. If any local colleges and/or universities are to be involved in pre- and post-preparation of teachers, they should be informed of your plans.

And of course, you are in fairly constant touch with the federal office staff of the LEA from initiation of the intent to write a proposal through the termination of the federally supported program.

These procedures are crucial for initiating and implementing the proposed program. They provide orientation, offer an opportunity for give and take in the planning and development of the proposal, and create a climate of acceptance, enthusiasm and responsiblity for the proposal and the program.

Writing the Proposal

The staff needed to write the proposal are writers, editors, typists, researchers, evaluators and budget officers. It is important to have writers and a chief editor who is knowledgeable in the area of bilingual education. It would also be helpful to have an evaluator who is knowledgeable about testing and evaluation in bilingual programs.

For uniformity of writing style and format in the proposal you should have a chief editor responsible for the final copy. It also will be helpful to have the typists use the same size and style of type.

Verify Required Administrative Procedures

You should verify the various administrative procedures by the LEA, the SEA, the non-public school system and the funding source. These procedures are time-consuming but vital to the completion of your proposal.

The LEA requires the approval and signature of the school superintendent; the approval of the members of the board of education which is granted through a board resolution passed at a board meeting; and approval from the executive director of the office of federal projects. The budget section of the proposal must be approved by the office of categorical funds.

The SEA liaison must have a copy of the proposal to review before sending a letter to the LEA for inclusion in the proposal. This letter verifies that the proposal has been reviewed by the SEA liaison and that the SEA supports the proposal.

In the non-public school system, the superintendent or the administrator of curriculum reviews the final proposal and sends a letter to the LEA stating that they have been invited to participate in the planning and implementation of the project and fully support it.

The funding source requires meetings of a parent advisory council to participate in the planning and implementation of the proposal. The names of council members and dates of meetings must be included as part of the proposal. A copy of the newspaper announcement of the parent advisory council meeting must be included in the proposal. Many federal regulatory documents must be signed by the school superintendent and included in the proposal.

Know and Follow the Proposal Guidelines Meticulously

Know the guidelines required for the proposal and follow them meticulously in terms of proposal format; data that are required; statement of program goals and objectives; specificity of procedures, description of programs, charts or tables, evaluation, budget, etc.; maximum number of pages indicated for the entire proposal; supplemental materials which may or may not be desired; and documentation and verification of public meetings.

Content of the Proposal

The heart of the proposal is the narrative or description of the program. The writing should be concise and to the point. Ideas should be expressed clearly and succinctly. Program goals and objectives should be clearly stated and must be measurable and/or observable. The objectives should stem from the goals.

The program should contain a detailed account of the various activities and components: the purpose of each; the time for each; and the manner in which each activity will be implemented. The personnel needed to implement the proposal should be listed with their qualifications and their precise function. The target group receiving the services of the program should be clearly defined, giving their number, ethnic background, and needs.

The involvement of the community in planning the proposal should be stated with supporting data, such as the dates and agenda of meetings and names of participants. The evaluation design should be described in detail, giving dates for pre- and posttesting, naming the measurement instruments to be used and the expected changes in performance. A time-line or PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique) chart should be included.

Housekeeping Chores

Before the proposal is sent to the funding agency, the following tasks should be carried out:

Format

- Typing should be uniform—all type size the same on each page
- Margins should be uniform
- Pagination should be checked carefully
- A table of contents should be included
- Charts, graphs and tables should be clear and readable
- A cover or strong staples should contain the proposal

Content

- Check to see if all documentation is included and in the prescribed order
- Check to see if all required signatures are included
- Do a final proofreading of the entire proposal
  - check against the guidelines
  - check for clarity of language
  - check for spelling

Mailing

- Make sure that the address of the funding agency is correct and complete
- Make sure that the postage is correct
- Send the proposal certified mail and ask for a receipt from the post office

Distribution of Proposal Copies

- Prepare enough copies of the proposal for distribution to the various LEA offices: superintendent, federal projects, budget, etc.
- Send two copies to your SEA liaison
- Keep several copies in your office file
- Send copies to the administrative office of the non-public schools
- Have a copy for other agencies and/or organizations involved in the planning and implementation of the proposal; e.g., the principals of the participating schools and the parent advisory council

By following these steps and the processes delineated in the previous pages, you will greatly enhance the possibility that your proposal will be funded and that your program will receive the needed school, community, and parent support.

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A bilingual program director must manage curriculum as well as the administrative aspects of the program. This article deals with those elements of curriculum development, in which the director's role is critical. He or she must decide priorities for curriculum development; select team members; recommend budget; and assume a central role in establishing instructional objectives, student performance standards, and textbooks. Resources are described and steps are suggested to aid the director in these tasks.

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Curriculum and Bilingual Curriculum

Simply stated, a curriculum is a description of what we want the students to learn in an educational program. This is true on either a narrow scale, as in a small curriculum unit on a single topic designed for a few weeks of instruction, or on a wide scale to include the entire course of study for a multi-year, multi-subject program. Individual curriculum units are often of great assistance to the teachers who use them, but merely employing a series of separate, discrete units does not provide comprehensive, interrelated instruction in which students gradually develop a full spectrum of knowledge and skills. Students in bilingual programs are entitled to receive a program of instruction which is as carefully planned and well-designed as the program for their monolingual peers. Therefore, for purposes of this discussion, a curriculum will be defined as the plan for a full program.

The most useful curriculum is based on a logical design and a clearly stated educational philosophy. It sets forth a series of goals and objectives for student learning. This applies to any educational program, bilingual or monolingual. Many of the goals and objectives in both types of curriculum will also be similar: for example, that students be able upon graduation to read and compute, that they know certain facts about science, geography, etc. These similarities derive from the fact that curriculum goals are based on an understanding not only of what we want the students to know when they leave the program, but also of what they know and do not know when they enter. In addition to design and philosophy, a curriculum is based on the developmental stages of childhood. Once it has been determined what the students will learn, decisions about when they will learn it are made on the basis of age and developmental level.

Cognitively and developmentally, there are many similarities between students in bilingual programs and their peers in monolingual programs, and these similarities require corresponding likenesses in curriculum. Six-year-old children, for example, are at approximately the same developmental stage in conceptual understanding and academic readiness whether they speak Spanish at home, or English, or Vietnamese. The same principle applies to twelve-year-olds or sixteen-year-olds. But there are also differences—linguistic and cultural differences—between the two groups of students, and these differences necessarily have a strong impact on curriculum content. Programmatic differences also play a role in curriculum.

Bilingual education is based on the philosophy that instruction in the students' first language is important both for the development of a positive self-concept and, based on Cummins' (1979) model of Common Underlying Proficiency, for the promotion of a general language proficiency which will also apply to the development of skills in English. This use of two languages for instructional purposes is a critical feature of a bilingual program, one which leads to important differences between the curriculum of a monolingual program and that of a bilingual program. The teaching of ESL (English as a second language) as a course or subject, for example, is unique, as opposed to using English as the medium of instruction for other subjects. However, the fact that students in a bilingual program will eventually join the mainstream argues for the maintenance of a core of similarity between bilingual and monolingual curriculum in order to facilitate a smooth progression in learning for these students.

Curriculum Decisions

Managing a bilingual education program involves decision-making on a variety of issues. Some are instructional, some are curriculum-related, and some are purely administrative. This article will focus on management of these matters in the area of curriculum. However, in the daily course of events such issues do not arise clearly labeled as "curriculum" or "administrative" but instead are usually overlapped and intermingled. Therefore, for purposes of clarity, it may be helpful here to define some "curriculum decisions." These cover a wide range, and the type of involvement from the bilingual program director will vary. Figure 1 outlines curriculum decision areas in which the director either deliberates and recommends, decides and selects, or accepts recommendations and approves.

Resources for Finding Bilingual Curriculum

Monolingual Program

One of the first places to begin looking for suitable curriculum for a bilingual program is the curriculum for your school district's monolingual program. This is recommended as a starting point for two reasons. First, you will want to know the order in which specific skills and information are presented to the students across the district, since this will affect a number of decisions regarding the curriculum for the bilingual program.

Figure 1

Curriculum Decisions According to Director's Role

The Director deliberates and recommends:
Budget allocation for curriculum

The Director decides and selects:
Curriculum areas to be revised/improved
Composition/members of curriculum team
Philosophy of the program
Priority of program goals
Priority of first and second language development
Structure/format of planning efforts

The Director accepts recommendations and approves:
Goals of subject matter
Rationale for subject matter
Instructional objectives
Sequence of instructional objectives
Language(s) of instruction
Textbook selection
Level of competence required of students

If monolingual students learn to read maps in the fourth grade, for example, then a bilingual student who transfers to a monolingual fifth grade must also have learned map reading in the fourth grade in order to function successfully. Second, in some cases the monolingual curriculum may be appropriate for use by bilingual teachers with little or no changes other than the language in which the concepts are taught. Probably the best example of this is mathematics; many bilingual programs have found the district's math curriculum to be very useful. Given the limited resources usually available for curriculum development, and the need for the bilingual director to be judicious in allocating these resources, initial review of the district's curriculum can be of great value.

Other Districts

Now that many school districts have offered bilingual education for a number of years, such bilingual programs can be another important resource. A few telephone calls, or letters, to neighboring districts will usually encounter a willingness to share a variety of samples of bilingual curriculum for consideration. Staff of the state bilingual education office, if there is one, can also be a helpful source of suggestions for districts to contact. If a local college or university has a teacher training program, their education library may also yield examples of curriculum from bilingual programs. A faculty member whose focus is curriculum can be another resource, both in locating bilingual curriculum and in the later processes of evaluating, adapting and/or developing curriculum.

National/Regional Centers

There are a number of regional and national information services which specialize in bilingual education. Fifteen Bilingual Education Multifunctional Support Centers (MFCs) across the country provide a variety of types of assistance to bilingual programs, as indicated by their title. There are three regional Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Centers funded by Title VII to print and disseminate bilingual materials and curriculum at low cost. Each EDAC maintains a catalogue of available materials, as well as a library of curriculum and other references. The three EDACs are in the process of phasing out and will have done so shortly after the appearance of this book. Readers may want to find out the names of the institutions at which their publications and collections have been relocated. The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education has a computer file of articles and resources. They will do a computer search upon request at no or low cost to bilingual directors. For a list of addresses and phone numbers, contact the bilingual division of your State Department of Education or U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, Reporter's Building, 4th Floor, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20202

Conferences

Conferences and workshops can also be effective vehicles for gathering information on bilingual curriculum. In addition to what is learned by participating in the workshop itself, presenters are usually available to respond to individual questions. Attendance at one workshop, and a conversation with the presenter, can provide a bilingual director with several names of other sources for follow-up. Both the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE) and Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) hold annual conferences throughout the country, and each organization has state or regional affiliates which hold periodic conferences on a smaller scale.

Commercial Materials

There are a number of commercially available series designed for use in bilingual education, mainly in ESL and Spanish reading and language arts. Such a series is not a curriculum. One develops a grand outline—the curriculum—for the program, which is wider in scope than any individual textbook series, and then looks for the texts which best match the goals of that curriculum. Ideally, you do not purchase a text before the curriculum is developed. However, most textbook series were developed by experienced educators and can provide a temporary focus for instruction in a bilingual program while curriculum is being developed. You may find then that the textbooks you are using will be compatible with the developed curriculum. In addition, experience using the same commercial series can serve as a common basis for discussion among teachers about which aspects should and should not be included in the curriculum for their bilingual program. While it is important to remember that a commercial series is less desirable than a real curriculum, the use of such series in subject areas where they exist can somewhat lighten the immediate curriculum development task for a program. This is especially important in bilingual education because certain areas (especially culture and native language arts in virtually every language but Spanish) have few if any commercial materials on the market.

Adopting or Adapting a "Found" Curriculum

Once a variety of curricula have been gathered, it is important that a set of criteria be delineated to serve as a basis for reviewing them. Such criteria can help the bilingual director to involve several people simultaneously in the review process, thereby accomplishing the review more quickly and efficiently, while still ensuring that common factors are considered. It is necessary that the director meet with all, or at least a core group, of those who will participate in the review process, in order to reach a consensus regarding the criteria to be used. From this discussion a simple checklist can be developed. A sample checklist is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Sample Bilingual Curriculum Evaluation Checklist

CURRICULUM TITLE ___ REVIEWED BY __________

DEVELOPED IN ______ SUBJECT(S) INCLUDED_____

GRADE(S) ____________

	Excellent				*Poor*
1. Are goals clearly stated?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Is material presented in a logical sequence, with gradually increasing complexity and difficulty?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Do objectives state the level of performance students are expected to achieve?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Are activities recommended for achieving each objective?	1	2	3	4	5
5. If included, are activities flexible (adaptable to different teaching styles)?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Are there clear instructions of a pretest for determining if students have the prerequisite skills?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Is the curriculum appropriate for the cultural and linguistic background of students in this district?	1	2	3	4	5

8. Do you think this curriculum should be:

____Adopted entirely
____Reorganized, then used
____Used with some deletions
____Used after some additions
____Rejected entirely

Comments:

Since educators vary in both philosophy and teaching style, it is unlikely that an entire "found" curriculum will be consid-

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ered appropriate for adoption by another program. However, there are several other options besides either a blanket adoption or totally discarding a given curriculum. If you agree with the goals, topics, and skills that are covered, but not the order of presentation, you may wish to reorganize the curriculum for use in your program. If parts of one guide are good but other parts are unsuitable, whole sections can be deleted. When this is done, or if a guide seems incomplete, it may be advisable to supplement it by developing new sections to be included. Depending on the results of the earlier review process, a bilingual director may decide on any combination of these options utilizing the various "found" curricula.

Directing the Development of Curriculum

Select the Curriculum Team

Once the scope of the needed curriculum development is clear, the bilingual director must decide who will be involved. While this may appear to be a simple decision, in fact it is of critical importance. It will influence not only the content of what will be taught to all students, and the quality of the final document—will it look like an amateur effort or a quality product?—but also the choice of people will have an impact on the later likelihood that the curriculum will be accepted and followed by bilingual teachers.

Jerry Brown (1981) presents an anecdote which argues for an inclusive, rather than an exclusive, approach to identifying a curriculum development team:

> Some years ago a new instant cake mix failed in the marketplace. Since taste tests had shown the product to be superior and homemakers were known to prefer mixes that were easy, what went wrong? After some head-scratching, the manufacturer discovered the mix was so "instant" the cake-makers felt left out of the process and, consequently, rejected the mix. When the manufacturer modified the formula to require the cake-maker to add one egg before beating, there was a turn-around in sales. . . .Curriculum developers need to remember that teachers are like cake-makers. Most don't want to start from scratch, but neither do they want to be left completely out of the process.

While bilingual teachers will be the actual implementers of the curriculum, and should, therefore, form the core of the curriculum team, a bilingual program has other constituencies who are likely to have an interest in what is taught in the bilingual program. These other groups, however, will usually be concerned more with some aspects than others. Parents of students in the program, and other members of the linguistic minority community, may wish to have input in the area of history and culture of the students' native land but will probably prefer to leave the sequencing of reading skills to others. The district's curriculum director or curriculum specialist will be concerned mainly about whether the bilingual curriculum will follow the district's approved course of study. Subject area specialists will probably wonder about the same thing. Testing specialists, while unconcerned about content, may have questions about how—or if—the bilingual students will be evaluated academically.

It would be unworkable to try to include all of the above groups in the curriculum team—nor would they want to devote the time and effort required—but the bilingual director can involve them at various points in the process in ways that utilize their specific skills, strengthen the team, and give each a feeling of involvement and 'ownership' in the final curriculum. Suggestions of some ways to organize such individuals and groups will be included in a later section, as part of the description of the steps which the curriculum team will follow.

In selecting the teachers to participate in the curriculum team, the director should take into account a variety of strengths that will be needed. Each individual may not be strong in all areas, but the team as a whole should represent a balance among the following criteria:

- Teaching experience with the grade levels for which the curriculum is intended.
- Familiarity with the students' language and culture.
- Ability to articulate goals and objectives clearly in writing.
- Thorough knowledge of the subject areas to be included (especially important at the secondary level).
- Creative teaching style (if the curriculum is to be a guide, with suggested activities).

Once the team is selected, one or two team leaders should be identified to provide consistency in writing style.

Organize the Work Structure

The bilingual director must determine the structure for the curriculum team's work, based on the available resources, time factors, and the preferred work style. If there is an immediate and urgent need for a completed product, and if there are funds for classroom substitutes, team members may be released from teaching responsibilities full-time for an intensive period such as four to six weeks. This approach will probably produce the most comprehensive document, since team members will be able to focus their total attention on the curriculum development. If there is a longer time period before the curriculum will be needed, the director may arrange to release team members one full day per week, or a series of half-days. While these options may sacrifice the group momentum which develops in a full-time work format, they are often more feasible, and they allow members to try out their ideas in their classrooms as they go along.

Prepare the Curriculum Team

Before the team is expected to begin work, several discussion sessions must be organized by the director inorder to lay the essential groundwork for the team's later efforts. First, the team must be informed of the reason for the development of curriculum at this time and the scope of work that is needed. Is this the first time the bilingual program has developed its own curriculum, or is the task one of revision to respond to questions about the appropriateness of the current curriculum document? How many subject areas and grades will they deal with? The director should give the team a full picture so that they are aware of the larger context within which they will function. Second, the team will need the director to bring in consultants—such as the district curriculum director or a curriculum specialist from a local university—to train them in using a curriculum format. In order for the finished product to be a clear and cohesive document, every member of the team must be prepared to work within this format. Such coordination of effort from a group of individual teachers will only be possible after adequate training. Third and finally, the director should lead the team in a discussion of the philosophy of the program and the social and academic characteristics of the students for whom the curriculum will be designed.

These preparatory sessions should also be used to discuss a number of important issues in order to determine how they will be treated within the new curriculum. What role will the students' native language play in the program? Will it be the major medium of instruction for certain subject areas at all levels? Or only for a specified period of time? If so, for how long? If the bilingual program begins with content instruction through the native language while the students learn ESL, with the goal of eventually providing content instruction through English, then how can the ESL curriculum be designed to include the specific vocabulary and grammatical structures which students will need at each level for this purpose? What is the cultural background and environment of the students, and how will it be incorporated into the curriculum? If the program includes many students who began their education in their native land, there should also be consideration of the teaching/learning style followed there in comparison with that of the local school district. Are there aspects of that familiar teaching/learning style that should be continued in the bilingual program because they either reflect significant features of the culture or will minimize the feelings of disorientation which students experience as they adjust to North American schools? Will the curriculum deal with affective areas, such as student attitudes and self-concept, as well as the cognitive areas? What is the degree of diversity among the student population in terms of academic skills and previous experience? Will there be placement procedures and grouping of students of similar skill levels for instruction in the curriculum? If not, how can the curriculum guides help teachers deal with this diversity in the classroom?

Such preparatory sessions are essential to allow the team to evolve a "group value base," a set of shared assumptions which enable them to work together later on a cohesive curriculum. If an earlier decision has been made to use sections of the district curriculum as a model format, and to incorporate portions of the "found" curricula from other programs, the team should also review these and be provided with time to discuss them.

Oversee the Curriculum Development

While the director may not be involved in the entire development effort, s/he should set forth the sequence of steps for the team to follow, meet regularly with the entire team to discuss their progress, help the team leaders to measure their work against the program and student criteria which they adopted earlier, and provide access to appropriate background reading and consultants throughout the process.

As a guide, one possible sequence of steps for a curriculum team's work is as follows (Lamperes 1982):

1. *Decide concepts and skills to be included.* Key concepts should be identified for each grade level, along with the entire scope of skills for the curriculum. Discussion with specialists in the subject areas—math, science, etc.—can be helpful at this point.
2. *Determine content.* Based on the concepts and skills, the team should decide the information to be learned at each grade level. Commercial materials can be reviewed at this stage so that decisions on content can take into account the materials available for teaching. Discussion with parents can be arranged here, especially regarding the social studies/culture topics.
3. *Identify placement guides and procedures.* Since students often enter a bilingual program in mid-year, placement procedures should be developed to aid teachers in determining a student's previous knowledge. Such procedures may include interviews, observations and tests. Each level of the curriculum should be analyzed to identify key prerequisite concepts and skills which students must have to enter the curriculum at that point, and interview questions, observational guidelines or test items should be prepared which measure these. In order to be effective, such placement procedures should consider proficiency in the language of instruction as well as content area concepts and skills.
4. *Choose evaluation strategies and standards.* The evaluation of student learning should go beyond simple tests of factual knowledge to include higher level skills such as comprehension, analysis and synthesis. Methods should include analysis of student writing, observation, and checklists as well as traditional tests. District testing specialists can be involved at this point.
5. *Pilot test and revise.* Ideally, each team member will pilot one unit of the curriculum in his/her classroom. Other teachers should also be involved in the pilot testing. If possible, this should occur after an orientation by the team leaders or team members. The team should develop criteria for the pilot process to evaluate 1) appropriateness of the concepts and skills for each grade; 2) suitability of the materials; 3) usefulness of

the evaluation strategies. If many units are piloted simultaneously, a month-long pilot should be sufficient. Following the pilot testing, the team should reconvene to make any changes necessary.

Preparing for Implementation

Prior to implementing the new curriculum, the director should prepare the document to secure any necessary approvals from the district curriculum director, superintendent and school board.

Once the curriculum is approved and ready for classroom use, and any necessary new commercial materials have been purchased, the director should arrange in-service sessions for all principals and teachers who will be asked to implement the new curriculum. Such in-service should include an initial orientation session presented by the director and members of the curriculum team, followed by on-site visits from team members periodically during the first year of implementation. These on-site visits may include a variety of activities: discussion of materials and teaching ideas, a demonstration lesson by the team member followed by discussion, or observation of the team member's classroom followed by discussion. The director may also arrange periodic meetings of the original team to share strategies they have found effective on the site visits to promote successful use of the new curriculum throughout the bilingual program.

In conclusion, a bilingual program deserves to have—and can have—as well-defined a curriculum as the monolingual program in the school district. Although the director of the bilingual program may not come from a background in curriculum development, there are a wide variety of resources available which can provide assistance in organizing and managing a curriculum team. By making appropriate use of these resources, and by following a sequence of steps such as those described above, the bilingual director can provide the teachers and students in the bilingual program with a curriculum which guides the acquisition of knowledge and the development of skills which the students will need to perform successfully on the level of their English-speaking peers.

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This chapter presents an overview of program evaluation applicable to bilingual education in particular and education programs in general. Major topics include definitions of evaluation and its purposes, how to determine evaluation questions, the role of the manager, evaluation designs, and standards for evaluation. Procedures for hiring evaluators and contracting for evaluation services are described. An evaluation model based on that proposed by the Center for the Study of Evaluation is recommended. This model identifies five tasks for evaluation: needs assessment, program planning, implementation evaluation, progress evaluation, and outcome evaluation. A task-target matrix useful in structuring the evaluation design is provided.

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Managers of bilingual programs are faced with a complex task requiring the use of many skills and tools in order to shape an effective program from its separate elements. Drucker identified these skills as "making effective decisions; communications within and without the organization; the proper use of controls and measurements; [and] the proper use of analytical tools. . ." (1974, p. 464). Program evaluation is one of the major analytical tools available to managers. Evaluation is a technical task that produces information to assist managers in controlling and measuring program activities and outcomes. Information has been called the "life blood of management" (Toan 1968, p. iii), because it helps managers know how well they are doing and what further actions are necessary for success.

Program managers need not themselves master all of the skills required of successful evaluators. But managers should know enough about evaluation to understand how it can help them, and when it is being properly conducted. This chapter is not designed to make evaluators out of managers, but it should prepare the manager to understand program evaluation better and use it more effectively. It attempts this by defining the role of evaluation in management and the role of the manager in program evaluation, and by familiarizing managers with basic evaluation designs and standards for evaluation.

Definition of Evaluation

Evaluation is a common human activity, hence a common term. It is defined as a set of processes which result in a judgment about the value or worth of various phenomena. Consider how we evaluate an object before purchasing; a candidate before voting; a mate before marrying. Evaluating, however, is not confined to the time before a decision is made; it is a continuous process, and constant evaluation may alter the original judgment or course of action. For example, one may purchase a car based upon information known at the time. Evaluation of the car, however, continues as it is used. Judgment about the worth or value of the car will be formed as more is learned about its daily performance, until finally, a decision is made about the ultimate worth or value of the car, and whether it should be retained or discarded for a new one.

In education, a variety of commonly used words or phrases are used to connote evaluation. This variety has led educators to define evaluation as they perceive it, and has sometimes resulted in an incorrect, and even a negative view of evaluation and its role in education. Examples of commonly used terms connoting evaluation are achievement testing, grading, identification or diagnosis of learning problems, affective or psychological measurement, assessment of teachers, and accreditation of schools. While each of these activities has an important role in education, and indeed may even be a part of the evaluation process as it will be described here, they do not singly or collectively define the type of program evaluation required by the managers of bilingual programs.

Part of the reason for the misunderstanding of evaluation can be ascribed to its relative newness. While it traces its roots back to the writings of Ralph Tyler (1934, and Smith and Tyler 1942), especially his 1949 monograph *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*, it enjoyed increased attention and growth with the advent of the federal government's Great Society programs of the 1960s. Evaluation was further stimulated by the increased attention given to accountability in the early 70s and by the initial questioning of the quality of education in the latter part of that decade.

A recent generic definition of evaluation will serve as the foundation for a fuller treatment of the concept of program evaluation described below. As defined in a recent publication of standards for evaluation compiled by a group of educators and evaluators, evaluation is the "systematic investigation of the worth or merit of an object; e.g., a program, project, or instructional material" (Joint Committee 1981, p. 152).

Roles of Evaluation

Extrinsic and Instrinsic Reasons for Evaluation

To further clarify the concept and role of evaluation, a distinction must be made between extrinsic and intrinsic reasons for conducting an evaluation of an educational program. Extrinsic reasons for evaluating depend on external forces, and are not inherent in the nature of evaluation. On the other hand, intrinsic reasons for evaluating derive directly from the nature of the evaluation process and its purposes.

Extrinsic reasons for evaluating result from external pressures created by society to account for what is happening in our institutions. That education is under attack is evident from the recent deluge of reports about the quality of our schools. Such pressures increase the demand that educational programs be evaluated to determine their worth. Similarly, when programs are funded for specific reasons by federal or state governments, as are many bilingual programs, legislators usually demand an accounting both of the way monies are spent and also of the programs' results.

In the past when educators were attacked, they relied on "guild criteria" as a defense. "Guild criteria", often used by professionals to justify their efforts, are those prized by the professionals themselves. These include such factors as degrees held, power, prestige, money earned, and especially for those in human service fields, sacrifice and service to society. Although some professions are still able to use "guild criteria," educators were forced to replace these self-serving standards with performance, and, therefore, the instrinsic value of evaluation emerged.

The purposes of evaluation are many and are all related to performance. The list of purposes given here is not exhaustive, but relates to the needs of managers of bilingual programs from a practical point of view. Evaluation is a process that serves to:

- clarify goals and objectives;
- identify needs;
- describe and document activities;
- check the effectiveness of a program periodically;
- provide information necessary for decision making;
- provide information to guide instruction;
- keep a program focused on attaining its goals;
- support public statements about a program's effectiveness;
- provide feedback to staff about the success of their efforts;
- determine the degree to which a program has achieved its goals;
- compare the effectiveness of alternative methods;
- assure parents and students about the quality and effects of services provided; and
- unite people in a common effort.

Together, these purposes combine to produce a more complete definition of evaluation. The list purposely focuses on the positive nature of evaluation and provides intrinsic reasons for conducting evaluations. While extrinsic reasons for evaluation are also important, in the end it is the degree to which evaluation helps the manager to manage that determines its usefulness.

Types of Evaluation

Evaluation may be classified into several contrasting types, and among the distinctions most useful to bilingual program managers are those between informal and formal evaluation, formative and summative evaluation, and internal and external evaluation. A discussion which explains each type and the reasons for choosing it follows.

Informal—Formal

Stake called attention early to the need to distinguish between informal and formal evaluation. Informal evaluation is typically practiced by persons in their day-to-day evaluation experience. Unfortunately its use is too widespread, even in education. Informal evaluation "is characterized by casual observation, implicit goals, intuitive norms and subjective judgment." (Stake 1967, p. 523). Because this mode of evaluation is so comfortable, it is widely accepted as appropriate. However, this approach can easily be biased by the evaluator's philosophy, desires, and feelings.

Formal evaluation is based more on informed judgment, using valid, reliable and objective data. It is characterized by structured observations, controlled comparisons, explicit standards or criteria, research techniques and principles of measurement, and objective judgment. Program managers must insist on formal evaluation to insure that the information gathered is of sufficiently high quality to be a reliable aid to decision making.

Because evaluation shares some of the formal techniques of research, the two are often confused, and it is important to distinguish between them. In practice, program managers and evaluators must be careful not to permit the research dimension to overpower the evaluation. The two processes differ on at least four major points described below.

1. The *objectives* of research and evaluation differ. Research is directed at discovering relationships between variables—particularly cause and effect relationships—to support theoretical positions. It can lead to understanding of natural phenomena for its own sake, and need not be directly and immediately applicable in order to be valid. Evaluation, on the other hand, exists for application. It is action oriented, designed to produce practical results such as adjustments to, support for, or even elimination of programs. While evaluation can also discover relationships and validate theoretical statements, it cannot be considered successful unless its findings are applied.

2. The *degree of generalizability* of the findings of research and evaluation also distinguish the two processes. To be useful research must be generalizable. Its results help to explain the behavior of other phenomena under similar conditions, or may be used to predict new phenomena. Evaluation is not concerned as much with prediction of future behavior; rather it focuses more on the here and now of the object under study. Evaluation's goal is to provide as much useful information as possible to be used in a timely fashion by persons who are working within the setting in which the evaluation is conducted.

3. Evaluation is *judgmental and utilitarian* by definition and function. Research, on the other hand, is judgment and application free. A researcher can legitimately study any phenomena without regard to value judgment or use, since the goal is basic understanding of how nature functions. The practical impact of research may be far removed from the resesarcher in place and time.

Evaluators must always be aware that their role is judgmental, and that they will be uncovering weaknesses, weighing accomplishments and offering alternatives for action, all of which have an effect on real people. Evaluation is designed to have a practical and immediate impact which is attributable to the work of the evaluator, who cannot easily be separated from the evaluation.

4. The *degree of interruption* tolerated also differentiates research and evaluation. Designs for research are less flexible than those for evaluation. Generally, once a research project is interrupted, such as by the decrease in or loss of control of variables being manipulated, or by the introduction of new variables, the project is terminated because the rules of causal interpretation no longer apply, and the researcher must start anew.

The opposite applies to evaluation, where interruption in the design is not only tolerated but expected. Successful evaluation is likely to identify reasons for change in the midst of the program and the evaluation design. Quite often, the design is then weakened from the standpoint of research principles. The evaluator is forced to compensate and adjust, but rarely, if ever, can the design be terminated since the reasons for evaluating persist.

Formative—Summative

Scriven (1967) made an important contribution to evaluation by articulating the distinction between formative and summative evaluation. These terms are still widely used and remain among the most useful and practical concepts in the field of evaluation.

Formative evaluation is undertaken while a program is operating, for the purpose of modifying the program while in its formative stages. Although very judgmental, it is the least threatening aspect of evaluation for it is clearly designed to improve a program and aid in its development.

Summative evaluation, as its name implies, is concerned with the overall worth or effectiveness of a program. It is usually conducted at a point when a program is mature enough to require a decision to support, certify, adopt, or terminate.

Internal—External

The internal-external dichotomy has not been as widely discussed in the literature of evaluation as the informal—formal and formative--summative distinctions. Brown (1974) has defined internal and external evaluation as follows:

> If the agency or individual is a part of the [institutional] family, the evaluation is internal. If the agency or individual has a remote connection with the institution being evaluated or if the evaluation is to serve the purposes of other than the evaluator, then the evaluation is external.

Once these terms are defined, an important question is raised: What difference does it make whether evaluation is internal or external? It is important because, in practice, a certain degree of cynicism attaches to the credibility of each mode of evaluation in specific circumstances, as Wilson (1973) has articulated in his discussion of the conflicting interpretation of findings on school desegregation.

> After having looked at the results of countless social science evaluations of public policy programs, I have formulated two general laws which cover all cases with which I am familiar: *First law:* All policy interventions in social problems produce the intended effect — *if* the research is carried out by those implementing the policy or their friends. *Second law:* No policy intervention in social problems produces the intended effect — if the research is carried out by independent third parties, especially those skeptical of the policy.

The credibility of *internal* evaluation is diminished whenever continuation of a program (hence the jobs and reputation of those in the program) depends upon the outcome of the evaluation. The credibility of *external* evaluation is diminished whenever higher administrative authority has already decided to scuttle a program and employs the external evaluator not to review the decision but to support it.

The credibility of the evaluation depends in good part on the *independence* of the evaluator. Numerous influences — mercenary gain, friendships, ideological position, even a desire for humaneness — militate against the exercise of independent judgment, no matter whether the evaluation is internal or external. Under ideal conditions, program managers and their superiors employ evaluators to supply informed judgments, freely arrived at and freely given. Therefore, it is important for managers to look at the advantages and disadvantages of internal and external evaluation, to be better able to choose the appropriate mode for given circumstances.

Role of the Manager in Evaluation

As noted earlier, the role of a manager is complex, requiring the use of many skills and tools "to make effective whatever strength there is in his resources . . . and neutralize whatever there is of weakness" (Drucker 1974, p.398). The role of the manager *vis a vis* evaluation is no more or less than his or her role with regard to other facets of the program. Drucker has identified five tasks of the manager: to set objectives, organize, motivate and communicate, measure, and develop people.

The manager must be involved with the evaluation at its inception. The first task is to establish the objectives of the evaluation by identifying the questions to be answered by the process. The manager also insures that the evaluation conforms to the organization of the project, not only by placing the evaluator in an appropriate organizational role, but by insuring that the evaluation activities are not disruptive to program activities. This fit is accomplished in one way by appropriate scheduling. More important, however, is the compatibility of the evaluation activities and the program activities.

As an example, in the evaluation of a multilingual/multicultural program, one would expect the evaluation to be sensitive to the linguistic and cultural diversity of the program through use of appropriate languages in the evaluation instruments. But compatibility may extend to more subtle issues such as the avoidance of words and phrases that may be offensive, methods of addressing participants, and the honoring of cultural traditions including holidays or religious observances.

The role of the manager as motivator and communicator is important because successful evaluation requires the complete cooperation of program staff and participants. This role extends also to those conducting the evaluation, who must understand the program and feel that the role of evaluator is considered important and productive by the manager. The motivator and communicator roles are closely related to the developer role of the manager, for the most important resources in evaluation are the people conducting it, and to the degree they can be made to grow with the program, both the program and evaluators benefit.

The final element—measurement—may be the easiest task of the manager, if a clear evaluation design exists. The design should clearly identify yardsticks of performance by specifying the tasks of the evaluation and the schedule of completion. These elements, as part of a contract management plan, are also an essential component of an evaluation contract when an external evaluator is hired.

Hiring an Internal or External Evaluator

Probably the first decision regarding evaluation to be made by a manager is whether it will be conducted internally or externally. The decision usually rests on four factors: size of the program, cost of evaluation, availability of qualified personnel, and credibility. Generally speaking, bilingual programs tend to be developmental or innovative within a school system, and are not large enough to require full-time evaluation staff. Cost of the evaluation is closely related to the size of the program, and often small programs cannot afford full-time evaluation personnel.

But even in larger programs, cost needs to be considered. At times, it may seem less expensive to hire an internal evaluator, until one considers the other costs (space, supplies, overhead, fringe benefits, etc.) associated with inhouse positions. Hiring an external evaluator to carry out a specific design may, in fact, be less expensive. On the other hand, if the external evaluator has high travel, communication, or overhead costs, the manager must consider the amount of direct service received for the funds expended.

The availability of qualified evaluators is limited simply because it is a highly specialized and technical field, and because no single person embodies all the skills necessary to carry out an evaluation of a program as complex as a bilingual program. Thus, it may be easier for the manager to assemble a team of external evaluators with a variety of skills to serve on a part-time basis than to search for a qualified person or persons to serve as staff in the program.

The degree of credibility required of an evaluator is another factor to be considered when deciding between an internal and external evaluator. All evaluation must be believable, but if the purpose is primarily formative, then internal evaluation may be more appropriate since the primary audience is the program manager and staff, and proximity to the staff and program activities may actually enhance credibility. External evaluation may provide more credibility when summative evaluation is more important than formative, when the persuasive power of a report is required, when the purpose is dissemination to potential consumers, and when an advocacy role is required.

Hiring Qualified Evaluators

As early as 1973, Stufflebeam began to examine the skills required of evaluators, of which he listed 234. While other lists have been produced (Worthen 1975; Anderson and Ball 1978; Madaus 1981), there has been surprisingly little effort to formalize the competencies required of evaluators through a certification process. Managers cannot, therefore, rely on governmental or professional approbation to assist them in selecting an evaluator.

Most recently, Webster (1984) and St. Pierre (1984) have identified characteristics of effective evaluators which can be useful to a program manager in selecting an evaluator, whether to serve internally or externally.

Webster reported that a total of 229 competencies were required by the Dallas Independent School District and these fell into in four major functional areas: project or program evaluation; institutional research; design, implementation, and reporting of large testing systems; and applied research. He listed six generic competencies which summarize these requirements:

- the ability to interact with evaluation audiences;
- research, design and statistics expertise;
- measurement expertise;
- data processing and computer analysis expertise;
- program evaluation expertise; and
- the ability to communicate in written and verbal form so that various evaluation audiences can use the information in decision making.

St. Pierre's characteristics of effective evaluators are taken from the viewpoint of an independent research organization, but are, nonetheless, similar to Webster's and relevant to program managers' needs. Those characteristics are:

- strong generalized research skills;
- broad ranging interests;
- strong communication skills, both written and oral;
- strong interpersonal skills;
- management skills; and
- an entrepreneurial orientation.

It would appear that the evaluator must be all things to all people, and rarely would one find an individual with all the necessary characteristics. For these reasons, good evaluation most often requires a team of persons who can contribute a variety of skills to the evaluation process. Technical skills are obviously paramount, but the interpersonal skills required of evaluators cannot be overemphasized because evaluation is an essentially person-oriented enterprise directly involving and affecting human beings at every step of the process.

Soliciting Bids for External Evaluation

Hiring an external evaluation team usually involves issuing a request for proposals (RFP). The RFP process is commonly used by governmental agencies to solicit bids for services and products. Examples of RFPs should be available from these sources. In addition, a valuable document to assist program managers in contracting for evaluation services has been prepared by the Massachusetts Department of Education (1983) and is recommended for the library of every program manager.

There are three steps in the RFP process—preparation, issuance, and review. The RFP should contain a clear statement of the evaluation needs of the manager. It can be prepared by responding to the following set of RFP questions (Massachusetts Department of Education 1983, p.2):

- What programs and/or students will be evaluated?
- What questions about the students and/or program will the evaluation address?
- What instruments or alternative methods of collecting information will be used?
- If no specific instruments or methods are identified: What general types of instruments will be selected? How

will the instruments or alternative methods be selected or developed?

- What are the qualifications of the evaluator?
- If the evaluator is not identified, what process will be used to select an evaluator?
- What are the dates for collecting the data and other necessary information for the evaluation?
- When will interim and final written reports be submitted?
- How much money or resources are allocated for the evaluation?
- How will the results of this evaluation be used?
- Who will receive copies of the evaluation?

Also included in the RFP should be standard information required by the issuer's agency, such as procedures for submitting bids and proposals, contracting requirements and affirmative action plans. It is important that the RFP contain a clear description of the proposal review process to guide both the preparer of the RFP and the preparer of the response to the RFP.

The following "Do's and Don'ts for Writing an RFP" are from a guide prepared by the Massachusetts Department of Education (1983, p.3).

- DO issue the RFP with enough lead time so that prospective contractors can do a good job with the proposal.
- DO be precise about the end results of the evaluation. State clearly what you want to know, how precise the results must be, and how the results are to be reported.
- DO indicate the amount of money available for conducting the evaluation.
- DO list clearly the products that will result from the contract. Include a description of each item, number of copies required and date required.
- DO specify any dates for which the contractor's presence is required (such as school committee meetings), as well as a list of crucial dates for the project.
- DO specify clearly who has responsibility (contractor or district) for costs of mailing, duplicating materials, contracting participants, paying for travel and meals for participants, etc.

- DO provide complete information on what criteria will be used when you review the RFP and how the review process will be conducted.
- DO include background information on the project.
- DO specify any format and/or content requirements for the budget.
- DO include an evaluation design, if one has already been selected.
- DON'T provide details on how the contractor should go about accomplishing the task; that is the job of the bidder. Different contractors will propose different ways to get the job done. As long as you have been clear about what the job is, you will be able to compare the approaches and costs proposed by different bidders and select the one that you think is the best.
- DON'T be too general and ambiguous.
- DON'T omit key issues you want to see addressed in the proposals.
- DON'T use jargon.
- DON'T expect a large response for a small RFP.
- DON'T establish unrealistic time or budgetary constraints for the tasks required.

The manager should issue RFPs to as wide an audience as possible, within reasonable cost parameters. Usually this is accomplished through newspaper advertising and mailing to potential bidders. One way to reduce the cost of mailing an RFP, if it is likely to be a large document, is to send a preliminary announcement to potential bidders asking them to submit "Letters of Intent to Bid," and then mailing complete RFP's only to those who respond.

An RFP issuing from a public agency is a public document and must be made available to all who request it. Similarly, responses to questions about RFPs from bidders are also public information, and both questions and answers should be made available to all potential bidders.

The proposal review process should be clearly specified in the RFP. It should identify who will review the proposals and how each element of the proposal will be weighted in the review. It is often best to assign points to each section of the proposal (e.g., evaluation design, qualifications, budget) to guide the viewers. Following review by a committee of three or more persons familiar with the project, interviews should be conducted with those bidders considered finalists in order to clarify and expand upon issues in the proposals. Persons with technical expertise in evaluation should be included in the review process whenever possible. Too often, however, their inclusion is not likely, since qualified persons may not be available in the area or because those with such experience may be bidders. In such cases, the use of program managers having experience with evaluation and in working with evaluators would be helpful.

The discussion on soliciting bids so far is most useful for "large" evaluations, generally defined as those costing $10,000 or more. Many evaluations of bilingual programs will not cost that much. The efforts expected of program managers in preparing, issuing, and reviewing RFPs, and of bidders in responding to them, may well be excessive for smaller evaluations. However, managers may still be required to solicit bids because of agency rules, but the process can be less formal.

In this case, a scaled-down version of the RFP process is recommended. The manager might prepare an outline of the requirements for the evaluation based upon the RFP principles outlined above, including amount of money available for the task. Two or more evaluators could be solicited for interviews to respond to the requirements. After the interviews, the finalist(s) could then be asked to submit a formal work plan and budget accompanied by a statement of experience and qualifications.

Whether the more formal RFP process or a shortened version is used, hiring an evaluator or evaluation team should be similar to hiring any other professional. While cost is undoubtedly a factor to be considered, experience and past performance should be the determining factor in the selection.

Contracting for Evaluation Services

Once the internal or external evaluator is selected, a written contract should be prepared. While there is no standard form that applies to all situations, there are essential elements to any formal agreement between the evaluator and the contracting agency. According to Sieber (1983, p.7):

> The main sections of an evaluation agreement or contract might include: a statement of the parties to the agreement, a description of the program, a description of the evaluation that is required, reporting requirements, steps to be taken to protect program clientele and others, ownership

of data, major provisions for the unexpected, budget and timeliness, authorized signatures and date.

A payment schedule tied to clearly identifiable evaluation activities or products should also be included.

A contract management plan can serve as the basis for a payment schedule, but such a plan is also a tool for the manager to monitor the evaluation process, and to focus communication between the manager and evaluator. An example of a contract management plan is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Sample Contract Management Plan

Date	Activity	By Whom
August 25	Orientation meeting (½ day)	Evaluator, Superintendent, Project Staff
September 1	Submit preliminary evaluation design	Evaluator
September 6	Administer reading test	Schools
September 12	Submit list of target population with names and addresses of parents/guardians	Project Staff
September 20	Submit list of selected sample	Evaluator
September 25	Meeting to review evaluation design; assessment instruments, etc. (½ day)	Evaluator, Superintendent, Project Staff Liaison Worker
October 15	Administer achievement tests	Project Staff
October 16-30	Analyze achievment data	Evaluator
February 1	Meeting to review logs, observation and achievement data	Project Staff, Liaison Worker
February 15	Submit Interim report	Evaluator
May 20	Questionnaire ready for review	Evaluator
June 1	Administer achievement tests	Project Staff
June 15	Administer questionnaire to Title VII principals	Evaluator
July 1-15	Analyze data	Evaluator
July 30	Submit final report	Evaluator

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Meeting between Evaluator and Project Staff will take place on the 2nd Tuesday of each month (October-June) unless another day is mutually agreed upon.

Taken from Massachusetts Department of Education. *A Guide to Evaluation Contracting for School Districts in Massachusetts*, 1983, p. 11. Reprinted with permission.

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Program managers should recognize that it is extremely difficult to specify services in writing, and a degree of ambiguity must always exist. It is, therefore, important that the manager and evaluator spend as much time as possible discussing the services to be provided.

As Sieber (1983, p 4) has pointed out, "Since evaluators and commissioners [of evaluation] do not know one another's needs, *the negotiation process is not so much one of haggling as it is one of mutual education and problem solving.*" In the end, she wisely notes, "it is the *clarity* and *trust* between parties, not legal clarity of the contract, that is crucial to the mutually satisfactory completion of the agreement."

Focusing the Evaluation

A preliminary activity requiring the collaboration of program managers and evaluators is focusing the evaluation. The shotgun approach to evaluation does not work, for resources are always limited and must be focused on what will be most useful to those requiring the evaluation findings. Consequently, major audiences and their needs will be identified, key features of the program identified, and purposes of evaluation clearly specified through a series of questions to be answered by the evaluation.

Renzulli's "Front-End Analysis" (1975) provides a straightforward approach to focusing an evaluation. Initially, the evaluator and manager must identify all parties with an interest in the evaluation—the evaluation audiences. These groups are either involved with or affected by the evaluation, whether directly or indirectly.

Audiences can include program managers, staff, program participants, community representatives, school board members, funding agencies, and the like. Not every evaluation audience is of equal importance, and they, therefore, must be ranked in terms of importance. This ranking will help the evaluator and manager to weigh appropriately the information needs of each audience.

Four procedures constitute front-end analysis:

- *Review of all written documents pertaining to the program.* Examples of such documents are grant proposals, curriculum guides, sets of objectives, budgets, schedules, and previous reports about the project.
- *Administration of open-ended input questionnaires to representative samples of each evaluation audience.*

Large numbers of people or lengthy and complicated questionnaires are not required. A few simple questions should suffice, directed at eliciting which features of the program are important for the evaluator to focus on, and identifying the information the group requires or desires.

- *Interviews with several representatives of the key audiences.* Short, informal interviews with *important* representatives of each group should be undertaken. For the sake of time and money, it may be necessary to limit these interviews only to audiences identified as most important. Group interviews may also be more efficient than individual interviews in this case. Again, the questions in these interviews, like those in the open-ended questionnaire, should focus on the informational needs of the audiences.
- *Observation of program activities.* There is no substitution for actually seeing the program to be evaluated in operation. Observation can give the evaluator a sense of the reality of the program against which to judge the data obtained from the documents, questionnaires and interviews.

The data obtained from these four procedures must be analyzed to the degree necessary to result in a list of questions, preferably in rank order of importance, to be addressed by the evaluation. At this point, the manager and evaluator can jointly agree upon the set of questions which will be the focus of the evaluation, given the reality of time and money available.

Managers and evaluators must recognize that front-end analysis is not the same as evaluating the program, and they must not devote too much time and money to the process. A rule of thumb might be to devote no more than ten percent of the resources available for evaluation to front-end analysis. In addition, both must be careful not to raise the audiences' expectations that all of their needs can and will be addressed.

An important side effect of front-end analysis is the establishment of the foundation for trust and rapport between evaluator and manager, and between evaluator and audiences, that is essential if the evaluation is to be truly successful. Enough cannot be written about the importance of trust and rapport in the evaluation process. Good rapport results in better access for the evaluator and greater cooperation in collecting data. A high level of trust helps to insure that forms and records are completed accurately, responses to questionnaires and interviews are truthful, and it increases the likelihood that recommendations resulting from the evaluation will be accepted.

Goals and Objectives

The clarification of goals and objectives is an important part of the evaluation process. Goals and objectives provide direction for the program—guides for managers, staff, participants, and evaluators alike. Goals are broad, general statements of purpose that set parameters within which organizations and individuals operate. Objectives spell out more specifically the outcomes to be achieved and activities to be undertaken so that the goals may be realized.

In an educational setting, objectives reflect the plan for learning. Tyler (1949, p.6) defined educational objectives as "the kinds of changes in behavior that an educational institution seeks to bring about in its students."

Educational objectives, then, become the basis for selecting the instructional materials and activities that will bring about the desired behavioral changes. Objectives also become one of the criteria by which a program is evaluated. It is essential, therefore, that objectives be expressed in concise and unambiguous language to facilitate consensus about desired program outcomes and activities. Such clear objectives are termed behavioral or performance objectives. The term performance objective is preferred because of its more positive connotation.

There are four essential elements of a well-written performance objective:

- The subjects are identified.
- The performance expected of the subjects is specified, using action verbs describing observable behaviors.
- The conditions under which the subjects must perform are given.
- A criterion level of proficiency is stated.

Discussion about the meaning and acceptable evidence of achievement of a vaguely worded objective such as "Students will understand the principles of English grammar," might proceed endlessly. But, consensus about the meaning and measurement of objectives like the following come easily:

> Given a set of sentences without punctuation, the students will use commas and periods to punctuate correctly in seven out of ten sentences.

The discussion so far has focused on learner objectives, but objectives can be written for any number of subjects: administrators, teachers, parents, aides, community representatives, and curriculum developers. In addition, objectives need not be limited to outcomes, but can also be written for activities. It would be useful, therefore, to distinguish between two types of objectives: product and process. A product objective is one that specifies behavioral outcomes or end-products. The objective given above is an example of a product objective. A process objective describes the means by which the product is to be attained, or the activities which will lead to specified outcomes.

A process objective for the product objective stated above might be:

> Under the direction of bilingual teachers, monolingual aides will use the XYZ Language Arts workbooks to provide punctuation practice for students at least 15 minutes per day.

Managers must be careful not to associate product objectives solely with summative evaluation, or process objectives solely with formative evaluation. Both product and process objectives can be evaluated formatively and summatively, depending on the focus of the evaluation.

An Evaluation Model: The Task Target Matrix

In the behavioral sciences today the use of models has come to equal in frequency and diversity their use for centuries in the natural sciences. It is important that, as this particular model is discussed now, one recognize that others are constantly moving in and out of fashion, as the societal variables themselves change. No evaluator should become the prisoner of a currently fashionable model merely for the sake of being up-to-date.

A multitude of evaluation models in education have been devised, some simple, some complex. The complex ones have been developed to meet the need for designing comprehensive evaluation; the simple models have often been designed because the complex ones have been unwieldy in practice. The Center for the Study of Evaluation at the University of California has proposed a simple but elegant model of educational evaluation. The essential elements of the model include the five evaluation tasks that are described below. These tasks employ terminology that is not likely to be quickly outdated and represent logical stages of evaluation coinciding with traditional program planning, development and implementation phases of a program.

1. *Needs assessment* involves comparing the present status of a system with a desired output. Discrepancies between needs and present results are identified, and priorities are established among the various needs.
2. *Program planning* provides information which will enable the decision maker to make decisions, i.e., to select the most appropriate alternative for meeting the needs identified in the assessment. The task of the evaluator is to anticipate the attainment of goals and to assess the relative effectiveness promised by different courses of action.
3. *Implementation evaluation* determines the extent to which the implemented program meets the description formulated in the program planning stage. The question to be answered is, how closely does the actual program correspond to that which was proposed?
4. *Progress evaluation* ascertains the degree to which the objectives of the program are being met. It produces information which will be used to identify parts of the program not achieving the objectives, and to effect immediate modification of those parts.
5. *Outcome evaluation* gives a final judgment about the overall worth of the total program. This judgment will assist in determining whether the program should be eliminated, modified, or retained unchanged, and will govern the extent to which successful programs are introduced in new localities.

This model fits nicely with the formative-summative distinction noted earlier: tasks 2, 3, and 4 (Program Planning, Implementation Evaluation, and Progress Evaluation) are viewed as formative evaluation, while task 5 (Outcome Evaluation) is summative evaluation.

A second dimension to the model is needed. The first dimension deals with the tasks or roles of evaluation; the second dimension deals with the target(s) of the evaluation (Orlandi 1973). In much of educational evaluation, the target is rather routinely assumed to be the learner. Certainly, change in the learner is the proper focus of program evaluation, but a program always has *some*, and usually has *many* other facets which

Figure 2

Task-Target Matrix

Target / Task	Students (1.0)	Teachers (2.0)	Administrators (3.0)	Materials (4.0)	Community (5.0)	Etc.
(A) Needs Assessment						
(B) Program Planning						
(C) Implementation Evaluation						
(D) Progress Evaluation						
(E) Outcome Evaluation						

directly affect that change. For example, the program management itself, if improperly conducted, will undermine any program.

Evaluators of programs have seen well-financed and well-staffed educational programs collapse into disarray because of inept leadership. Good program management in the early stages of a program's development and implementation seems to be the *sine qua non* of a successful program. That program management should have thorough evaluation from the start is vital to enacting changes in the learner.

Other targets of evaluation may include parents, teachers, curriculum materials, community involvement or other components identifiable as significant to a program's success. Evaluation of these additional components has always been a part of bilingual program evaluation and yields more comprehensive results, beyond those changes which are effected in the learner alone. Comprehensive evaluation will require determining which targets are significant, each to be systematically examined over the five task stages of the evaluation process. This process is represented in the Task-Target Matrix which appears in Figure 2.

The rows in the chart represent the evaluation tasks and the columns represent components that are the targets of the evaluation. Each cell represents the intersection of an evaluation task and a target component. For example, cell A-1.0 refers to a needs assessment of students in the program.

The cells in the matrix indicate all areas which it is possible to evaluate. Because evaluation is generally costly, decisions must be made concerning which cells are to receive attention; some cells will receive little attention, others none at all. An example follows of how to use the matrix on matters likely to be addressed in a multi-cultural education program.

The model starts first with the student component (Cells A-1.0 to E-1.0). *Cell A-1.0* calls for needs assessment of students. A first step is to determine where the school system feels the students *ought* to be in regard to multi-cultural education. That is, what kinds of knowledge and attitudes should they have regarding their own and other cultural groups. The second step is to determine where the students actually *are* in relation to this knowledger and these attitudes. The need, if there is one, is the gap between where students ought to be and where they are. Once the needs or gaps have been identified, they should be restated as behavioral or performance objectives and ranked in order of importance. The task or role of the evaluator in the needs assessment process is to provide technical assistance in the following ways: the development of cognitive and noncognitive measurement instruments; the interpretation of results from these instruments, from standardized tests, and from other data sources; the ranking of needs and objectives; and the restatement of needs in the form of objectives.

The evaluator at this stage of an educational program serves as a technical specialist to ensure that reliable and valid decisions are made in initiating a program, that the objectives shaping the program have been clearly and fully stated and priorities assigned. Far too often, evaluators have become involved in an educational program at a later stage, only to find that the program was not really needed or wanted by a school system in the first place, or that the objectives were so foggy and abstract that no one really knew in what the program was to accomplish.

Cell B-1.0 calls for program planning for students. Here the emphasis is on educational strategies designed to attain the major objectives, and includes setting dates by which or on which specific activities with students will be undertaken. A detailed description of classroom activities with students and their underlying rationale is required, not the general and vague description customarily offered; otherwise the evaluator will be unable to assess the plans intelligently. Among the questions which the evaluator may ask are:

- Are these strategies ones which specialists in the field have recommended?
- Do the strategies appear too childish or too sophisticated for the students involved?
- What kinds of student reaction to these strategies are likely to occur?
- Has too little or too much time been scheduled for their completion?
- Are the strategies sequenced in such a way that their impact is maximized?

The evaluator's role in program planning is to try to foresee problems in the implementation of strategies, and their impact, positive and negative, on students. Success depends, in part, on the evaluator's knowledge of curriculum planning, and on previous experience in evaluating other programs. The evaluator must necessarily raise questions about the feasibility of the proposed strategies; in this sense he/she may often be most useful in the role of devil's advocate.

Cell C-1.0 calls for implementation evaluation of the planned program for students. Unless the actual instructional strategies are highly congruent with the planned strategies, the success or failure of the plan cannot be appraised. Usually what occurs in classrooms differs to some extent from what was planned. Teachers and other staff members often deviate from planned strategies, for whatever reason. Deviations which seem significant must be determined early in the program, and reported to decision-makers.

Cell D-1.0 calls for progress evaluation of students. Student progress toward achievement of the major objectives can be assessed in various ways, one of the most popular being formative achievement tests, which show the extent of student mastery of specific objectives. They are administered at frequent intervals in the program, and may signal areas of weakness. Certain students are likely to need more intensive instruction, or a different form of instruction, before mastery of a given objective is attained. If continuous measurement of student progress does not occur, it is likely that failing students will not be identified until too late. Here again, evaluation will be efficient to the extent that it occurs *before* and *during* the program, not merely after it.

Cell E-1.0 calls for evaluation of student outcomes, both unanticipated and planned. The planned outcomes are the desired program objectives; unanticipated outcomes can be either desirable or undesirable. An example from multicultural education might be that students have become more knowledgeable and appreciative of their particular ethnic heritage. If the goal is achieved, then the outcome as planned is achieved. If, however, the students come from a cultural group which historically has relegated women to inferior roles, and the student generalizes the view to society as a whole, many would express concern that an undesirable unanticipated outcome has been achieved.

Evidence of outcomes may derive from achievement tests, but other data-gathering procedures such as interviews, rating scales, questionnaires, and observational techniques may also be used. The evaluator may, for example, interview students to probe for unanticipated outcomes, or observe them in different classes for cues of this kind.

One can see in these examples how the tasks or roles of evaluation may be derived with respect to students. Evaluation does not stop there, however, and must be extended to the other targets. Using the context of a multicultural education program again, a brief example from the teachers column will be examined.

A needs assessment of teachers *(Cell A-2.0)* may indicate that few know much more than the students about the cultures in the planned curriculum, that some have attitudes toward certain cultural groups that may hinder instruction, and that few are trained in methodology best suited to multicultural curriculum instruction. Accordingly, objectives to overcome these shortcomings among teachers must be stated, a suitable program planned and implemented, progress of teachers toward the outcomes appraised, and assessment of final outcomes made. Other targets—administrators, materials, community, school plant, and the like—may be similarly assessed.

As noted earlier, the evaluator and the program manager must make hard decisions about the focus of the evaluation. That is why the evaluator must probe deeply to learn just what is expected of the evaluation. The process of front-end analysis described earlier helps the manager and evaluator to decide which cells in the Task-Target Matrix to employ and which to ignore.

Evaluation Design

Once the focus of the evaluation has been decided, a clear plan for the evaluation must be developed. This plan, called the evaluation design, insures that only needed data will be collected. Needed data are those which answer the questions formulated when focusing the evaluation. Everything else is unnecessary. A clear evaluation design not only serves as a guide for the evaluator, but provides a common foundation for understanding the evaluation process for the manager, participants, and audiences.

Design Format

The format for the evaluation design usually takes the form of a chart beginning with the evaluation question to be answered or the performance objective to be assessed. The chart contains eight columns which define the plan for collecting and analyzing data pertaining to the question or objective (Consalvo and Orlandi 1983). The eight columns are:

1. *What* data are to be collected? (Examples: student reading scores; teacher attitudes.)

2. *When* will data be collected? (Examples: standardized tests should be administered very near the norming dates, in fall or spring; teacher questionnaires will be administered in April.)
3. *Where* will data be collected? (Examples: tests will be administered in classrooms; questionnaires will be mailed to homes.)
4. *From whom* will the data be collected? (Examples: a random sample of 50 students; all bilingual teachers.)
5. *What instruments* will be used to collect data? (Examples: individually administered oral language assessment; rating scales.)
6. *Who* is responsible for data collection, scoring, and recording? (Example: Tests may be sent to the central office to be returned to the company for scoring and conversion to other than raw scores, and the converted scores returned to teachers for recording onto a separate form.)
7. *How* will data be *analyzed?* (Example: simple frequency counts; percentages; mean scores; analysis of variance.)
8. *What* will be done to *control* the quality of the data? (Example: spot-check testing and scoring; specify proportion of missing data considered acceptable.)

Other principles of data collection and management have been identified by Consalvo and Orlandi (1983) to support the proper implementation of the evaluation design. They are to:

- collect data tailored to the format of its presentation in the evaluation report;
- prepare clear recording forms and directions for record-keeping;
- inform participants and all concerned parties of the evaluation plan and data requirements;
- monitor the data-collection process;
- establish a system for storing and retrieving data; and
- institute procedures for maintaining longitudinal evaluation records.

Basic Research Designs for Evaluation

A design is much more than simply a good management tool. A sound evaluation design for a program's instructional component includes a methodology to show that student progress is due to participation in this particular program. This methodology helps the evaluator to rule out other plausible reasons for observed results.

Research design evolved from work done with experiments in the physical sciences. Based on facts known about the subject and treatment conditions, a statement is made proposing a relationship between the treatment and its effects on the subjects. This statement, known as a hypothesis, is then tested in an experimental setting.

To illustrate, an example from our garden is used. Hypothesis: Treatment with Brand A fertilizer causes plants to grow higher. One research design to test this hypothesis would first measure the height of a group of plants, expose these plants to Brand A fertilizer, and then measure their growth at a later point. This design is diagrammed as follows:

$$O_1 \; X \; O_2$$

where O_1 = the first (pre) measurement,
X = the treatment, and
O_2 = the second (post) measurement

But, even if the plants grew higher, one still could not be certain that the growth was due to the Brand A fertilizer. It could be explained by other factors in the environment (e.g., water) or in the plant itself (e.g., genes).

In order to demonstrate that Brand A fertilizer is indeed the cause of higher growth, steps need to be taken to rule out or "control" these alternative explanations. For example, if Brand A fertilizer is the reason for growth, then what happens if Brand A is not applied? Alternative explanations can be accounted for by adding a second group of plants which are treated the same in every way except that they do not receive Brand A. This group will serve as a basis for comparison of the growth of the treated plants.

Plant growth could also be due to some particular characteristic of the plants in the treatment group which differentiates them from the comparison plants. Therefore, a design must insure that the plants in the treatment group are the same in every way as the plants in the comparison group at the start. This equalization is accomplished by assigning plants to either group randomly. Random assignment means that every subject has an equal chance of being in either the treatment or non-treatment group. The procedure helps to insure that unique characteristics of the plants that might account for high growth are distributed between the two groups equally. The group which is equal in every way to the treatment group except that it does not receive fertilizer is called the "control" group.

Once the groups have been selected, an initial observation of height is made, Brand A fertilizer is administered to the experimental group, and after a time final measurements are made of both groups. This true experimental design is represented schematically as follows:

Treatment Group	R	O_1	X	O_2
Control Group	R	O_1		O_2

(where R = random assignment to treatment and control group)

If a difference in growth is observed between the treatment and control groups, it is more certainly attributable to the Brand A fertilizer given to the treatment group.

However, most social research does not occur under conditions favorable to experimentation. Subjects are human beings who often cannot be randomly assigned to a treatment or control group. Levels of treatment and other conditions may also be hard to adjust. Evaluators must select a design that best accounts for the circumstances of their project and provides the highest degree of control. As Tien (1979, p. 497) states,

> the purpose of an evaluation design is to *minimize* the threats to validity while at the same time to *suggest* causal relationships. (Emphasis added.)

Threats to validity can be regarded as plausible alternative explanations of the findings of an evaluation. The internal validity of a design refers to the degree of certainty that the treatment causes the effect, or conversely that if the treatment were not present, the result would not occur. Internal validity of an evaluation is threatened when the treatment effect is really attributable to other factors (Cook and Campbell 1979). Such factors include:

- Maturation: Natural changes in subjects due to the fact they become older and wiser.
- History: Other processes occurring in the environment at the same time as the

treatment may be responsible for, or influence the effect.

- Selection: When treatment and non-treatment groups start out differently.
- Mortality: Subjects dropping out of the experiment could change results, if the attrition were systematic.

Quasi-experimental designs offer social scientists designs that are suitable for field settings. Quasi-experimental designs do not utilize random assignments and, therefore, do not have equivalent treatment and control groups. They are, however, very useful approximations of the true experimental design and offer evaluators some prospect for attributing the outcomes found to the treatments offered.

The norm referenced design is a quasi-experimental design commonly used in educational evaluation (Horst and Tallmadge 1975). In this design, student progress is compared to a nationally representative sample of students (a norm group) at the same age/grade level. This design is diagrammed as follows:

$$\begin{array}{lccc} \text{Treatment Group} & O_1 & X & O_2 \\ \cline{2-4} \text{Norm Group} & O_1 & & O_2 \end{array}$$

(where the line separating the groups indicates non-random assignment)

The expectation in this model is one of no gain based on the assumption that the achievement rates of both groups remain constant from pretest to posttest. That is, in reference to their norm group peers, treatment students should remain in the same relative position on the test. Thus, if treatment students do show a gain in standing (i.e., in percentile rank) from pretest to posttest, then it is assumed to be due to the treatment.

While this model is widely used, it has severe limitations for bilingual populations (DeMauro 1983). The norming group for most standardized tests is monolingual students, with little representation of linguistic minorities. To compare a group of bilingual students to a norm group may not be valid, because such a comparison presumes that both groups have had the same exposure to the material being tested at the time of the pretest. Such tests taken by bilingual children may measure only how much English they know, and not how proficient they are in a particular skill area.

Another quasi-experimental alternative is the nonequivalent control group design diagrammed below:

Treatment Group O_1 X O_2

Comparison Group O_1 O_2

For this design to be valid, the comparison group must be as similar as possible to the program group. For example, bilingual students from the same school district but who are not in the program being evaluated, or bilingual students in another school district may serve as comparison groups. If the two groups are very similar, a statistical technique called analysis of co-variance can be used to adjust for initial differences between the two groups. If the differences between the groups are real, however, co-variance underadjusts for the initial differences and may prevent accurate comparisons of the treatment and comparison groups (Horst and Talmadge 1975).

The quality of the information derived from this design is obviously dependent on how similar the comparison group is to the treatment group. Not every group will serve as a good comparison group. Evaluators and program managers have an obligation to defend the similarity of the comparison and treatment groups if this design is chosen.

If finding a comparison group is not feasible, either a criterion-referenced design or a time series design may be utilized for the evaluation. A criterion-referenced design examines whether students have mastered certain skills or objectives to a pre-specified level (DeGeorge 1981). A major drawback of this design is the difficulty in setting criteria for mastery.

A time series design uses a single group of students and takes a series of measures prior to treatment and a series of measures after treatment, as shown below.

Treatment Group O_1 O_2 O_3 X O_4 O_5 O_6

One advantage of this design is that a series of measurements provides a more accurate picture of growth than just one or two measures. However, the design is most useful when repeated measures are easily and naturally obtained over time (e.g., rate of spelling errors, standard English pronunciation) as opposed to using one of the standardized tests.

This design can be strengthened if a comparison group is added:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Treatment Group} & O_1\ O_2\ O_3\ X\ O_4\ O_5\ O_6 \\ \cline{2-2} \text{Comparison Group} & O_1\ O_2\ O_3\ \ O_4\ O_5\ O_6 \end{array}$$

The cautions applicable to the non-equivalent control group design, however, must still be noted.

A sound research design is essential to increase the credibility and validity of an evaluation's findings concerning the outcomes or effects on participants in the program. Selecting a design is dependent on the particular setting and population involved in the program. Whatever the circumstances, the design should be as strict and systematic as possible to provide enough control to rule out competing explanations for program effects.

Standards for Evaluation

Evaluation, like any professional activity, requires clear and explicit standards by which performance can be judged. *Standards for Evaluation of Educational Programs, Projects, and Materials* (Joint Committee 1981) is intended for use by evaluators and consumers of evaluation as guiding principles "to ensure that evaluations would be conducted effectively, fairly, and efficiently" (p.6). The standards were developed and field tested by a large group of educators, evaluators, and government officials.

As shown in Figure 3, thirty standards have been grouped into four categories: utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy. Taken together, the thirty standards define a sound evaluation as one that is useful, realistic, conducted ethically, and technically adequate. The standards are useful for program managers and evaluators as a vehicle for communication about evaluation and as a set of rules for judging the quality of evaluation. They also provide evaluators with principles for self-regulation.

Program managers and evaluators must be aware that the standards represent an ideal state that usually cannot be attained in the settings in which most bilingual program evaluations are conducted. This fact should not dissuade evaluators from striving to meet these standards in order to upgrade the quality of evaluations as well as that of the profession itself.

Figure 3

Evaluation Standards

Utility Standards: Intended to ensure that an evaluation will serve the practical information needs of given audiences.

1. Audience Identification
2. Evaluation Credibility
3. Information Scope & Selection
4. Valuational Interpretation
5. Report Clarity
6. Report Dissemination
7. Report Timeliness
8. Evaluation Impact

Feasibility Standards: Intended to ensure that an evaluation will be realistic, prudent, diplomatic, and frugal.

1. Practical Procedures
2. Political Viability
3. Cost Effectiveness

Propriety Standards: Intended to ensure that an evaluation will be conducted legally, ethically, and with due regard for the welfare of those involved in the evaluation, as well as those affected by its results.

1. Formal Obligation
2. Conflict of Interest
3. Full and Frank Disclosure
4. Public's Right to Know
5. Rights of Human Subjects
6. Human Interaction
7. Balanced Reporting
8. Fiscal Responsibility

Accuracy Standards: Intended to ensure that an evaluation will reveal and convey technically adequate information about the features of the object being studied that determine its worth or merit.

1. Object Identification
2. Context Analysis
3. Described Purposes and Procedures
4. Defensible Information Sources
5. Valid Measurement
6. Reliable Measurement
7. Systematic Data Control
8. Analysis of Quantitative Information
9. Analysis of Qualitative Information
10. Justified Conclusion
11. Objective Reporting

Based on the Joint Committee on the Standards for Educational Evaluation, *Standards for Evaluations of Educational Programs, Projects and Materials*, McGraw-Hill, 1981.

Conclusion

It is hoped that the reader recognizes the potential of evaluation as a management tool. If one considers the role of management as improving the use of resources to maximize outcomes, then evaluation becomes one of the manager's chief tools. It can help tell managers where they are going, how well they are doing, and whether changes should be made in the use of resources. Evaluation not only can provide valid, reliable, and timely information to aid the manager's decision making, but can serve as a source of support for program staff and participants, a foundation for public and professional communications, a guidance system for managers, staff, and participants, and an objective process for describing and documenting program procedures and outcomes for funding agencies, higher authorities, and consumers.

Evaluators should not be viewed as ivory tower experts, interesting researchers, or persons to be feared. Rather, they should be considered an integral part of the management team, whose role is to help program managers maximize the use of program resources to insure success.

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12

The chapter is organized around two major strategies in the collection and management of evaluation data. The first and predominant approach—the algorithmic—includes the many "taken for granted" procedures required in any formal evaluation. The second strategy—the heuristic— is less frequently pursued, and involves less structured means of gathering information, including often a focus on capturing fugitive and transient data. It is proposed that data collection and management in bilingual programs capitalize on the complementary nature of the two.

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Introduction

Much of the effort in data collection and management involves an array of taken-for-granted activities (tests, checklists, etc.), comprising approaches of proven effectiveness. To these approaches—to this array of systematic procedures—we have assigned the term *algorithmic:* an algorithm is a set of steps that guarantees a solution. When evaluative data is needed, timely and correct administration of valid and reliable instruments will return the desired information. An earlier article (Consalvo and Orlandi 1983) described the algorithmic approach to data collection and management in bilingual education, and specified the relevant concerns and constraints. Beyond the taken-for-granted procedures, however, lies a large array of other kinds of inquiry: to this contrasting, yet supplemental, approach, we have assigned the term *heuristic:* a heuristic is "a rule of thumb, strategy, trick, simplification, or any other kind of device which drastically limits the search for solutions in large problem spaces" (Feigenbaum and Feldman 1963, p. 6). An example of "a large problem space" is the question from a program director: "What data should be collected to determine whether we have a good bilingual program?" Examples of heuristic "strategies" are described in later pages. When information gathered through heuristics is combined with that gathered by algorithmic means, the question receives a comprehensive answer.

The distinction between algorithms and heuristics, which serves as a major organizing principle for these pages, has been expressed in a closely related fashion by Jerome Bruner (1965, p. 2):

> "Since childhood, I have been enchanted by the fact and the symbolism of the right hand and the left—the one the doer and the other the dreamer. The right is order and lawfulness, *le droit.* Its beauties are those of geometry and taut implication. Reaching for knowledge with the right hand is science. Yet to say only that much of science is to overlook one of its excitements, for the great hypotheses of science are gifts carried in the left hand."

The concept has more recently been popularized in a spate of publications on left-and-right-hemisphere functions in brain research. The relevance of the idea to the algorithmic-heuristic proposition is clear: we suggest that particularly in matters of data collection, the professional must put both hands on the job.

Algorithmic and Heuristic Orientations: Their Complementary Nature

Informing the discussion at every stage in this chapter is the basic proposition that one gathers data for the purpose of making decisions; a corollary is that not every kind of future decision and the data that will be needed for it can be anticipated as data is gathered in the present. An excellent example of the algorithmic orientation in data collection is found in the comprehensive guide published by Burstein (1984). As shown by the scope of the listed categories (Figure 1), the inventory seeks in a systematic way to capture all of the useful—and potentially useful—kinds of data important in decision making.

Figure 1

Types of Information Routinely Collected (or Collectable) in School Districts

A. Demographic/Archival
   1. Student demographics—age, sex, ethnicity, home language, parents' occupations
   2. Teacher and building-level administrator backgrounds—age, education, previous employment and educational history
   3. School building characteristics—information about physical plan (e.g., age, capacity, particular resources)
   4. Student body and community composition—ethnic composition, neighborhood wealth, community involvement in neighborhood schools (e.g., PTA membership)

B. Financial
   5. Payroll expenditures
   6. Materials and supplies
   7. Equipment
   8. Maintenance
   9. Special programs (e.g., entitlement programs, staff development, remedial services, counseling and guidance)
   10. Transportation
   11. Safety and security

C. Testing
   12. Standardized norm-referenced tests
   13. Criterion-referenced testing
   14. Minimum competency and proficiency testing
   15. Group and individual ability and aptitude testing—

Figure 1 continued

done typically to determine pupil eligibility for special programs and placement decisions

16. Teacher-made tests and curriculum-embedded tests

D. **Program Characteristics and Participation**

17. Special program participation—availability and staffing of special programs at local school sites
18. Curriculum information—curricular packages and texts used in classrooms, topic coverage from continuum (assumed and measured)
19. Course-taking patterns—information from student cumulative records and from prescribed offerings
20. Grading practices—teacher reports of student grades

E. **Student Performance, Participation, and Behavior**

21. Grades by content area
22. Participation in extracurricular activities by types
23. Awards—e.g., scholarships
24. Absenteeism and tardiness
25. Reported disruptive and inappropriate behavior

F. **Affective, Attitudinal, and Observation Information**

26. Students' responses to surveys about class and school environments and other aspects of their educational experience
27. Teacher measures of classroom and school climate and activities
28. School building administrator measures of school climate and activities
29. Parental surveys of perceptions and support of school activities
30. Parental participation in school activities (e.g., volunteers, fund-raising attendance at school functions, scheduled conferences)
31. Administrator observations and evaluations of teachers
32. Teacher observations of other teachers
33. District personnel's observation and interviews of building personnel
34. Surveys of graduates to determine occupational and educational status
35. Information about student drop-outs

G. **District Evaluation Reports**

36. Routine annual reports to board and federal and state agencies
37. Evaluation of specific educational changes
38. Instances of local school assistance by type and disposition

When confronted by the vast array of data gathered in accordance with such a set of guidelines, decision makers need to take what Burstein calls a "giant" step; that is, they need to create an organization for the archive. James Coleman and Nancy Karweit, in an earlier, seminal study (1972, p. 32) identified five principal design problems that must be addressed:

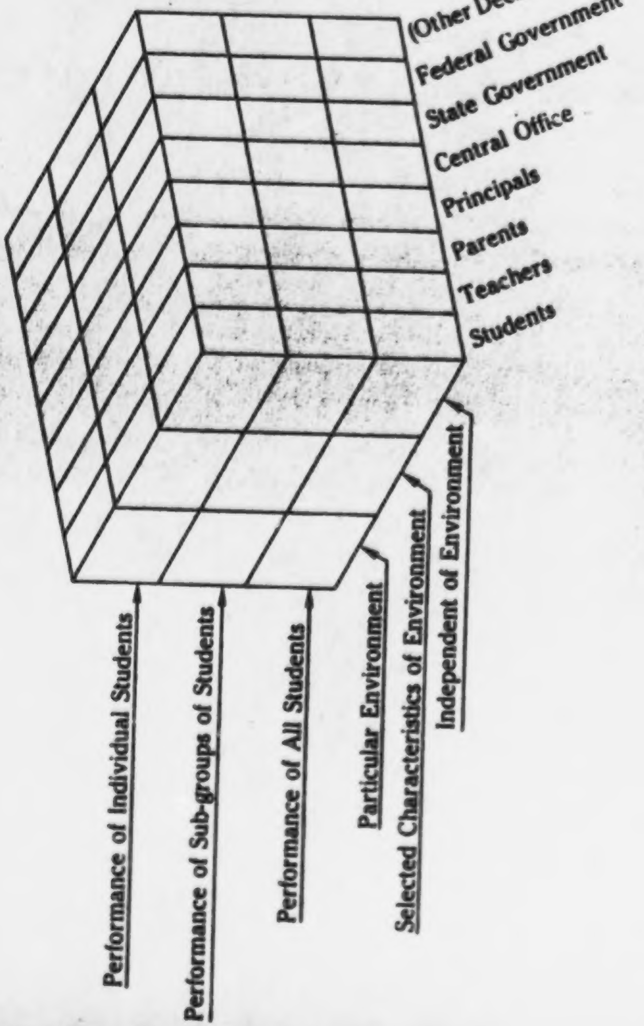
1. Problems of *location*, arising from differences between the locus at which data are generated, the locus at which the file is maintained, and the locus at which information is needed for decisions.
2. Problems of *control* of and *access* to the information.
3. Problems of *comparability of data* from different schools or different school districts.
4. Problems of *incomplete information:* data not ordinarily obtained or filed for administration purposes, but necessary for decisions of various types.
5. Problems of information *aggregation, analysis* and *presentation.*

Project directors make decisions that involve three basic categories of information about students: performance of individual students, sub-groups of students, and all students. They also make decisions concerning three categories of environments: particular environments, selected characteristics of an environment, and characteristics independent of an environment. Coleman and Karweit then describe different kinds of decision makers who act upon these categories of information; in Figure 2, we have added this third dimension to their basic table, to help visualize the "multi-level information system" that they discuss.

The model proposed in Figure 2 can serve heuristic purposes by prompting investigation of the significance of the various cells. Such a use may be illustrated by identifying predictable questions, from certain decision makers, about certain issues: for example, the cell at the intersection of TEACHERS, PARTICULAR ENVIRONMENT, and ALL STUDENTS might prompt the following question: In a given cloze reading exercise, which items are missed or mastered by a large proportion of the students? (In this instance, a *teacher* is concerned with the mastery or non-mastery of the *student* in his/her *classroom.)* The cell at the intersection of FEDERAL GOVERNMENT, PARTICULAR ENVIRONMENT, and ALL STUDENTS may prompt this question: For the various forms of language

Figure 2

Types of Information for Use by Educational Decision Makers


(Other Decision Makers)
Federal Government
State Government
Central Office
Principals
Parents
Teachers
Students
Performance of Individual Students
Performance of Sub-groups of Students
Performance of All Students
Particular Environment
Selected Characteristics of Environment
Independent of Environment

behavior—speaking, listening, reading, and writing—what increments in performance are associated with differing emphases across the several forms? (In this instance, the *federal project supervisor* may be interested in *student achievement* in a particular *Title VII project.*)

The figure helps emphasize the importance of "linkage"—the programmed cooperation at national, state, and local levels essential to the efficient management of information resources—to insure compatibility of data, if the archives are to serve the broadest range of interested people and agencies. "Linkage" also implies the need for monitoring and input on the local level, to insure that the inevitable data-reduction efforts by state and national agencies preserve the accuracy of the data originally collected. Burstein in his article notes that there is an:

> . . .emergence of data archiving and multipurpose usage by state educational agencies. State assessments, originally developed for general and local system monitoring, are increasingly used in investigating the impact of new programs introduced by the states, applied research on the characteristics of effective school programs, and policy analyses. Various state educational programs are beginning to coordinate their data collection efforts to avoid redundancy where possible, and data archives are being established to insure ready access to the information collected (1984, pp. 310-311).

The work by Coleman and Karweit also helps to answer a very compelling point made by Burstein (1984, p. 308): "At present, local school uses of information tend to be responsive and targeted, rather than reflective and multifaceted. . . . [School] districts seldom use data for purposes other than those for which they were originally collected. . ." The reanalysis of archival data—but more particularly the inventiveness whereby the data sets are turned to new and further uses—is the concern of a heuristic approach. (Beyond the information on the test content, for example, a given set of essay answers may yield evidence on cultural issues.) In an important sense, the reworking of existing data sets—in local data banks, for example—actually constitutes "data gathering" of a special kind.

Crucial to reanalysis, and to imaginative new inspection of data sets, is the extent to which the formatting of archival records facilitates—or even permits—such reworking of the information. "It is still uncommon to find thoughtful and informative examinations of the rationale and procedure for data archiving and usage" (Burstein, 1984, p. 309). The consequences for data management that flow from formatting are discussed under the first topic of the next section.

Examples of the Heuristic Orientation

In an effort to identify more clearly the characteristics of the heuristic approach, three topics have been chosen: natural language processing, classroom observation, and data base management systems.

Natural Language Processing

The subheading refers to computer processing of verbal data, usually in sentence form; the data may originate as writing, or may be transcriptions of spoken language. Most bilingual programs rather quickly amass large sets of language data, and one of the most common forms is student writing. If the program administration is careful to require that samples of student writing (paragraphs, compositions, etc.] be "keyboarded," perhaps by the students themselves into tape or disk formats compatible with the local computer installations, the data may, thereafter, be available for a full range of lexical, grammatical, semantic, and other studies not necessarily foreseen when the writings were initially collected. Not all writing by the participants need be captured in machine readable form; but the availability of representative samples can lead to new insights from the same data.

Given the almost weekly increase in processing power and speed in microcomputer technology, ambitious investigations of larger and larger arrays of data can be undertaken. Such studies are not merely the concern of researchers; they provide answers to decision-makers in the fashion suggested by Figure 2. For example, a district essay competition would generate papers from which a word-frequency "dictionary" might be compiled, which document would in turn have obvious relevance to the vocabulary exercises designed by the district teachers.

Natural language processing is also involved in another procedure given new prominence by the proliferation of powerful microcomputers: the cloze procedure. In its most common form, the procedure involves the omission of every *n*th word (usually fifth) in a reading passage, of at least 300 words in length, with the requirement that the respondent supply the missing words. Although designed most often as a measure of readability, the cloze procedure serves a variety of other purposes in language study.

> [Cloze] has recently also been used with non-native speakers of English as a measure not only of reading ability, but of general proficiency in English. Initially validated against more traditional tests of proficiency in English as a foreign language, its increased use is being justified by the claim that it is superior to these traditional measures. The general conclusion from most cloze studies has been that cloze is a reliable and valid measure of reading comprehension and, for non-native speakers, of proficiency in English as a foreign language (Alderson 1978, p. 1172).

The problem in the past has been that preparing a cloze exercise is labor-intensive, especially if variations in passage and frequency of word omission are experimented with. When the cloze is computerized, however, it is possible to generate multiple variations of the exercise; although a non-trivial programming task, the work of preparing a cloze exercise is facilitated by public domain (non-copyright) programs that are relatively easy to modify. The ease of preparation means that various passages, and combinations of passages, can be tried, and subsequently graded for difficulty.

The cloze procedure affords a particularly cogent opportunity to inspect further the complementary functions of the heuristic and algorithmic approaches. Through computer manipulation of the cloze procedure, program administrators and evaluators have new opportunities to collaborate with federal and state agencies in establishing normative data for the language habits of native and non-native speakers of English. When efficient cloze exercises have been developed, the attention turns to the standardizing of the administration, scoring, and reporting of results—that is to say, to the algorithmic concerns in data collection and management.

A related heuristic approach would be to conduct sorting studies of student writings (i.e., a count of the *different* words used by a writer), to provide the kind of baseline data that subsequent vocabulary work can build on. Growth in range and richness of vocabulary can be documented by pre- post-administrations of the same writing task. (Computer measures of fluency in bilingual programs are discussed by Cahill and Foley, 1979.)

Two assumptions underlie the preceding discussion: first, it is assumed that when program participants produce writing, they will benefit from focusing on the single most powerful advantage writing has over speech—the opportunity, namely, to change words. The speaker may pause, rephrase, and resume—but only infrequently, if the listener is to remain engaged; the writer may rephrase at will. From this controlling importance of revision, the second (more routine) assumption is that the program has preserved, on disk or tape, files of running text—sentences, paragraphs, short papers—and can expand those files with new data.

Classroom Observation

One main characteristic of the heuristic approach is the potentially transient nature of the evaluative data. The busy and complicated enterprise called classroom observation provides a classic locus in which to pursue further the complementary nature of the two orientations. Standard practice finds a trained observer on site, armed with an observation checklist, a stopwatch and a sharp pencil. What is left out in standard practice is the invitation to capture *also* those kinds of data not pre-ordained by the observation checklist. An exclusive reliance on impressionistic data leads to error, but equally serious misinterpretations arise from too complete a dependence by the observer on the checklist categories. Elliot Eisner's concept of "educational connoisseurship" (1977, p. 349) maintains that "educational practice. . .is an inordinately complicated affair filled with contingencies that are extremely difficult to predict. . ." The algorithmic rigors of the observer's training and instrumentation make it possible, however, first to recognize, then to capitalize on the value of the impromptu hint or hunch that adds data where none was invited by the checklist. Pasteur's famous dictum codifies the point: "Chance favors the prepared mind."

The issue of classroom observation leads to a consideration of the one activity at the heart of every program: the teaching act itself. Since most of us have at one time or another been inspired by fine teachers, we can immediately sense the difference that good teaching has upon learning. Yet little attention—particularly in the collection of program evaluation data—has been given to the act of teaching. Even national proposals to reform American education overlook the central and critical role of teaching.

In a searching and critical analysis of four recent reform

> proposals for American education. . . Lawrence Stedman and Marshall Smith, analyzed the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, appointed by Secretary Terrel Bell; the report of the Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, established by the Education Commission of the States; the College Entrance Examination Board's report, Academic Preparation for College; and the report of the Twentieth Century Fund's Task Force on Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Policy. Stedman and Smith found a serious omission in all four reports: they had "ignored the problem of pedagogy: namely, the question, 'How is it taught?'" (Gage 1984, pp. 91-92.)

Because teaching is widely viewed as an art so complex that it defies analysis, and because so much research on teaching has failed to reveal essential differences between good and bad teaching, it is not surprising that evaluators have placed far more emphasis on inputs and outputs than on the process of teaching. Gage's description of teaching underscores its awesome complexity (1984, p. 88):

> Teaching is an instrumental or practical art. As an instrumental art, teaching departs from recipes, formulas, and algorithms. It requires improvisation, spontaneity, the handling of a vast array of considerations of form, style, pace, rhythm, and appropriateness in ways so complex that even computers must lose the way, just as they cannot achieve what a mother does with a 5-year-old.

Despite the complexities, systematic studies of teaching continue to yield useful results. Recent research on teaching has demonstrated, among other things, the importance of time on task:

> Our new conceptions of teaching have arisen out of studies of such things as how teachers allocate classroom time and how they choose the content they teach. Within the same district or even the same school, enormous variability across classrooms is the rule in both of these areas. Finding out why one teacher allocates 14 hours of classroom time to fractions and another teacher allocates no time at all to that topic has captured the attention of many researchers during the past few years. Moreover, we now have some knowledge of how widely attention rate or time-on-task varies from classroom to classroom and of how it is maintained. The message of such research is that the cur-

> riculum that is actually delivered to children in particular classrooms varies greatly as a result of teachers' decisions about these matters (Berliner 1984, p. 94).

Important to bilingual education is the distribution of *actual* time (vs. *allocated* time) to the various language divisions and sub-divisions of reading, writing, listening and speaking in the child's native language and in English. This part of the data-collection task can *in large part* be accomplished algorithmically through systematic observation of instruction, however time-consuming. Systematic observation requires application of a carefully constructed observation instrument which addresses critical elements of instruction. Because there is not full agreement on the "critical" elements of language instruction, observation instruments will reflect the pedagogical perspective (and heuristic versatility) of the developers, as Stodolsky's questions imply: "What constructs and ways of viewing instruction are best used? Do different conceptions (and operationalizations) of instruction lead to different results. . . ?" (1984, p. 13.)

Data Base Management Systems

One of the microcomputer applications most closely related to the needs of bilingual programs is that set of programs known as data base systems. (An associated kind of computer program is the "project planner"; this application represents an updating of the system known over several decades as PERT—Program Evaluation and Review Technique.) Data base management systems usually include "spreadsheets"—a feature whereby a matrix can be tailored for use in a particular program, charting, for example, along one axis the people involved, and along the other axis the numbers, locations, expenses, and other variables of interest. The heart of the matter in such "spreadsheets" is their capability of displaying in what way a change in one variable (total staff, for example) will affect the other columns and rows (expenses, assignments, schedules, etc.). In essence, the technology permits asking countless "what if" kinds of questions, to assess the consequences and implications of proposed (and accidental) changes. The exploratory nature of this kind of data management places it in the heuristic domain. Once the files of a bilingual program are organized in one of the many data base systems, the cross-tabulations and projections are limited only by the imagination of the decision maker.

Conclusion

From the foregoing discussion of the heuristic dimension in data collection and management, a variety of practical applications can be developed. For example, useful data on student abilities in mathematics can be obtained from the cafeteria cashier, the referees on the playing field, the corner store owner. Data on student language behavior can be obtained from the school bus driver, the librarian, the crossing guard, the secretary in the main office. These examples are mentioned as indicators of the range of possibilities in gathering data. It will be obvious that this dimension sets a certain premium on inventiveness, even ingenuity; but that is precisely the point of the heuristic orientation.

In the interest of promoting heuristic approaches to data collection and management, the chapter risks deemphasizing the importance of the algorithmic approaches. Because standardized tests, attitude scales, checklists and other procedures are steps to be taken for granted, the authors do not maintain that they are, therefore, any less significant. In sum, however provident the system of archives, whatever the speed and versatility of retrieval, whatever the depth of reanalysis or meta-analysis—the utility of the results will depend on the balance of heuristic and algorithmic approaches throughout the data gathering enterprise.

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REPRODUCIBLE ON MICROFILM

13

This chapter is intended for the manager who has had little or no experience with computers, and perhaps has felt some apprehension about it. With a minimum of technical jargon, the chapter suggests procedure a manager should follow in determining which needs of the project a computer can a help satisfy; gives help on selecting the computer programs and the computer itself which will fit the particular needs of the project and produce the desired resulty; and finally, some suggestions for implementation are given. The emphasis is upon the role of the manager in exploring whether and in what way a computer would be a valuable addition to the management of the project.

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Do you think a manager would welcome having an assistant who could help to produce clean, error-free letters and reports, and to maintain information that can be accessed, reviewed, and summarized quickly? I do. Further, I would go on to say that many managers of bilingual education projects could find that a small computer is capable of providing such assistance. A computer could be both an aid and an aide to the manager.

Computers have been in and around schools for many years and have proven useful for a variety of purposes. Generally, the early users in schools were administrators responsible for producing grade reports, transcripts, and attendance accounting. Some used computers to help schedule students to classes; some to maintain records of library withdrawals. In time, computers appeared as instructional aids to classroom teachers, particularly following the development of the less expensive, desk-top computer known as the microcomputer. The convenience, ease of use, and lower cost of this microcomputer has opened the door to more specialized uses by people who otherwise would not have become experienced computer users. Included in this group are some bilingual project directors.

With this in mind, I will first describe here some microcomputer applications that may be of use to project managers and then will suggest how a manager can assess the value of those applications. Then, I will describe a process for selecting computer programs (sometimes called software) and computers (hardware) to make the desired applications possible. Finally, I will address the task of implementing a planned use of computers.

As you can see, I am emphasizing here procedures, and I do so for two reasons. First, the director who explores using a computer as an aid to management will have to live with the outcomes of eventual decisions about computers, and, as a result, should direct and participate in the exploration instead of having someone else make decisions that impact upon the project. I want to provide here some guidance for the director in that exploration. The second reason for my stressing process is that options and alternatives change so rapidly that any specific recommendations I might make now will become outdated rapidly, yet the processes will continue to apply. As a result, when I later discuss certain applications, I will not recommend a particular program (or software) nor recommend a particular computer (hardware) because, as soon as I were to do so, better ones may be introduced. This, certainly, has been the history to date.

Possible Applications for Managers

Word Processing

Using a computer for word processing is like having the most modern version of a typewriter. Both enable us to convert keystrokes into documents such as letters and reports. The major feature of word processing is that any document can be retained and later corrected by changing, adding, moving, or deleting parts of the document, even single letters or words. Then, provided that you have a printer connected to the computer, you can produce a newer, corrected version or draft without having to retype everything. Word processing is exceedingly useful for producing reports because the first draft can be edited and corrected several times until you decide to have the computer print the final, clean copy. Similarly, word processing helps to prepare clean letters, notes, and memoranda.

You may have the computer store away your document should you wish later to make another round of changes and produce a newer, final version. There are several methods for storing documents, but the most common method employs a specially magnetized diskette better known as a "floppy" disk because it is somewhat flexible inside its envelopelike shield.

Some printers and typesetting houses have equipment that can take the floppy disk on which you have stored a document and produce a typeset version. This possibility makes typesetting available at less cost than having someone retype the document on a typesetting machine. This technique may be important only if you must prepare printed material, but it does illustrate the fact that the newer technology of word processing also makes available some new features.

Word processing systems make it possible for you to produce rather easily the same letter over and over with different names and addresses. Consider, for example, the need to send the same letter to each member of the executive board of the parent's advisory committee. After using the word processor to produce the letter for the first name on the list, you can go back to change the name and address (or anything else, too) for the second one on the list, print the new letter, and repeat until you have a letter for everyone. Some computer programs make this even easier by means of a "mail merge" feature that can combine lists of names with form letters to produce individually addressed letters. You may already have been subjected to this feature yourself with letters addressed to you from mail order companies anxious to sell you their wares.

Data Bases

The term "data base" is jargon for files or records that you may want to store in a computer for future use. Chances are that your school district already has a computerized data base for students that contains information such as names, addresses, test scores, course grades, and the like. Such a data base is similar to having a filebox of cards, one for each student, on which is entered the desired information. Instead of cards, the computer has "records" containing the information. With a filebox you can access (pull out) one or several of the cards and look at them, and with a computer you can access one or several of the records and look at them on a computer screen. You should be able to make changes and additions to the filebox cards, and you should be able to make changes and additions to the data base records. If you want to take with you information from the filebox cards, you must copy from the cards, but with a computer you can take with you a "printout" instead. Later we'll see that data bases make possible other printouts such as statistical summaries of information.

If your school district has a data base which contains records of students in the bilingual program, there should be no need to duplicate information. On the other hand, you may want to save different information unique to the limited English proficient student as described in the chapter by Orlandi and Foley. Such information can provide you with the data you need to study, for example, entry/exit experience in your school.

Statistics

In order to achieve full benefit from all the information contained in a data base, it is important that you be able to summarize data in the form of counts, means, standard deviations, and other statistics. Statistics can help you to keep track of the progress of your project in much the same way that formative evaluation does. Statistics can help you to report to others about progress, particularly if you wish to employ the graphics discussed below. Computerized data bases are conducive to calculating statistics, but the computer programs that enable you to create and maintain a data base may or may not include the capacity to compute statistics. Sometimes a separate program is needed, but that separate program must be able to use your data base; it must be compatible.

Telecommunications

Sometimes we want to be able to look at information in the data base of another computer. We may want to retrieve bibliographies from ERIC*, a federally funded collection of references to reports and articles about education, or from BEBA**, a similar collection of references to reports and articles about bilingual education that is maintained by the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education***. These and other accessible files are called "data banks" with the feature that, for a fee, subscribers may access (look at) data but may not add or change anything. A microcomputer equipped with a "modem" and matching software makes it possible to access data banks over telephone lines.

Spreadsheets

The term spreadsheet is usually associated with a computer, but it refers only to many numbers that are arrayed in rows and columns. Bookkeepers have for years used ledger sheets to record, for example, expenditures by checks listed on rows and by accounts shown in columns. A computerized spreadsheet makes relatively easy the task of adding entries across rows or down columns. Some spreadsheet users like the feature of projecting trends by using columns to designate years and using the computer to add year by year growth factors defined by the user. Thus, enrollment projections can be facilitated with a spreadsheet. Setting up budgets with a spreadsheet allows you to make changes and immediately see what effect the changes have upon the totals.

Planning Models

Some available software helps in planning projects and in developing the management section of a proposal. The planner defines the proposed activities as usual, but the computer software can aid in the scheduling of the resources and the time needed to complete each activity. Some software simplifies the task of designing and producing a Gantt chart to show when activities begin and when they end. For complicated activities that are dependent upon each other, software exists to prepare a PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique) chart.

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*ERIC, Educational Resources Information Center, is sponsored by the National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C. 20208, and is accessible through several computer services.

**BEBA, Bilingual Education Bibliographic Abstracts, is maintained by the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education and is accessible through the Bibliographic Retrieval Services, Latham, N.Y. 12110.

***National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Rosslyn, Virginia 22209.

Graphics

Often we would like to have graphs and charts to include in our proposal or report or even to use with an overhead as part of an oral presentation, but we do not because they are not easy to produce. A computer with good, useful graphics software can change that. Many software packages help to produce bar charts, pie charts and graphs of many kinds, and many are easy to use. So, for example, you can produce a pie chart that illustrates visually the breakdown of a budget, or you can have a bar chart that illustrates the distribution of students in your program by grade. Some software requires you to enter the dollars or the numbers through the keyboard yourself; some have the potential of drawing from compatible data bases, and you are spared having to enter the data yourself.

Integrated Software

Some software combines two or more of the applications given above. For example, it is possible to combine word processing, data base management and graphics into one integrated package such that the use of one is similar to the use of the others and data can be common to all. Thus, graphs can be drawn from what is in the data base, or a text can include something from the data base. Software that combines several applications is called "integrated."

Local Networking

There is a growing interest in having two or more computers interconnected in such a way that information can be shared among them. To illustrate how such networking may work in a school system, imagine that the district maintains a large computer with a student data base and that your bilingual program has a smaller computer connected to the larger one in such a way that your computer can retrieve general information about a student that can be combined with the very special information stored in your own computer. Networking has great potential in schools, but it is expensive and complicated with today's state of the art. However, you may want to plan now for the day when it becomes more feasible.

Deciding Which Applications to Pursue

Assess Needs, Possible Benefits

As in any systematic approach, you must first determine the program needs that could be met better with the aid of a computer. At the same time, you should estimate the possible benefits to you and your staff. In order to make the assessment you may find it useful to answer the following questions:

1. Has the typing of reports and correspondence become a burden to your staff?
2. Do you require having any text typeset for printing?
3. Do you or your staff find it difficult to maintain the required records of the students in the program?
4. Do you find it difficult to combine pieces of information about program students from different sources?
5. Can the school district provide you with the information that you need about students in the program?
6. Are you able to obtain the statistics that you need to monitor student progress and to use in summative evaluations?
7. Do you have any demand for ERIC-type bibliographic references that is not now being met?
8. Are you expected to accomplish such forecasting as enrollment projections that require many computations?
9. Has preparing budgets proven to be difficult because of the arithmetic involved?
10. Are you expected to prepare management plans with PERT charts or Gantt charts for which you can use assistance?
11. Is it important to be able to prepare graphs, bar charts, or pie charts?

This list of questions is not exhaustive, but the answers can help you to identify several major applications for consideration.

Estimate Funds Available

You must remember that use of a computer requires not only the expense of hardware but sometimes an equivalent expenditure for software and training. At this point it is too soon to discuss what such expenditures might be, but you must determine now the amount of funds that you may be able to use.

Evaluate Preliminary Benefit/Funds Ratio

Can you now see whether the potential benefits warrant an expenditure up to your estimate of the funds available to you? Later on we will look directly at costs and benefits, but right now you may be able to judge whether the benefits you would like to have are worth the possible expenditure. You may decide now, for example, that the funds available would be better spent on something else and that you would really prefer handling the possible applications without the aid of a computer. After all, everything does not have to be done by computer.

You may determine at this time that funds are really too scarce for you to justify in any way purchasing a computer. You may have to consider the possibility of borrowing some time on a computer that was justified and purchased for another use. It may be, for example, that in your building is a computer used for computer assisted instruction (CAI) and that your best opportunity to use a computer is to request access to that machine. In fact, you may feel that a modest start on a borrowed computer is a better way to ease into using computers anyway. You should be aware that shared computers are often the source of conflicts over who has priority for use over whom. Times for specific users must be mutually agreed upon. Even scheduled usage can be a problem if teachers want students to have free access any time during school hours and right after school as well. Your time for using the machine could end up being early morning and evenings.

Selecting Software and Hardware

Whenever possible, it is best to select the software you need before you select hardware. Otherwise you may find yourself stuck with a computer that is very good for a number of uses but not appropriate for your needs. If you find that you must share someone else's hardware, then naturally you are limited to selecting software that works on that computer.

Finding Information about Software

You will find that it is best to use several sources for information about software. You should not rely upon only one agency or one individual because no one knows everything there is to know and because people may have personal preferences that they are not even aware of but which differ from yours. Here are three different sources of information and you should use all three:

COMPUTER STORES. There are now many (micro)computer stores that sell software and hardware and that have references to available software. Personnel at computer stores will have personal knowledge about only a few of the many types of software available and they may have a preference for certain software publishers, so be cautious. On the other hand, they may be able to demonstrate some software for you and allow you to try using software they may have in stock. Seeing and touching is important.

MAGAZINE REVIEWS. Several magazines specializing in microcomputers periodically feature timely and thorough reviews on available software written by knowledgeable people, but there are too many such magazines for you to try to read or even skim through. Fortunately, there is a bimonthly publication that gives references to microcomputer articles. Some libraries may have *Literature Analysis of Microcomputer Publications* which references articles by author, by subject (e.g., Word Processing Systems, Data Base Management Systems, and Business-Management), and by reviews (e.g., Software for Business and Home and Computer Systems). The best of the reviews contrast the features of different software.

OTHER USERS. You will find that other users of software will be happy to share with you their experiences with applications software. They may even be willing to give you a chance to watch the software being used, and that experience is important. Remember that you may be a pioneer among your peers and that you may have to go beyond personal acquaintances to find users. Stores may be able to suggest users to you. Some regions have computer clubs or associations that sponsor user groups from whom you can obtain good, useful information.

Criteria for Selecting Software

Ultimately you must live with any software that you choose, so you must make the selection that gives you what you want. Still, there are some issues and questions that can help you to establish your own criteria for selection, and they are as follows:

FEATURES. Does the software have the features you need? Can the software do what you want? If you are reviewing data base software, can it handle as many student records as you want? as many items on each student as you want? long student names? Does the software allow the use of accents and other symbols that may apply to your student population?

SECURITY. Data base software, for example, should provide security through passwords that allow you to limit those who may change any entries in the data base. You may want also to have different passwords for those who may look at any information but may not make changes. If so, are you able to?

EASE OF USE. You and your staff must be able to use the software easily. Software that offers "menus" from which you may select features or procedures is generally easiest to use. However, quite often software that was designed to be very easy to use also has less capacity, less flexibility, and fewer features. Conversely, software with everything you can think of ever wanting can be difficult to use. You must decide what balance to strike between the extremes.

TRAINING. Even software that is easy to use requires some training in its use. Sometimes the software is explained in an accompanying tutorial program designed to introduce each procedure and to give one a chance to try out each with examples. Of course, the tutorial software should be part of your analysis and review. In some instances training in the use of software is offered by colleges, by universities, or by private consultants in the form of classes, workshops, or laboratory sessions. These may require tuition, an expenditure which could and should influence your decision. Nevertheless, make sure that some form of training is made available to all who will use the computer, including yourself.

ASSISTANCE. Even after users have had training and some experience it is not unusual for them to need further help with a problem not otherwise foreseen. Consequently, you should be sure that you can get help somewhere. Some help may be available, for a fee, from those who provide training or from other users of the software, perhaps free of charge. Be sure to provide for some assistance, however.

COSTS. Are the total software costs, including training, reasonable in light of your estimate of funds available to you? Of course, we have yet to discuss hardware costs, but do software costs seem to fit your budget, keeping in mind the projected benefits from having that software?

Criteria for Selecting Hardware

You may already have found that you simply cannot afford to think of obtaining your own hardware and that you may have to make do with sharing time on someone else's computer. If you do have the luxury of purchasing your own computer, however, you will have to use your own criteria. Listed below are some questions and issues that you should address.

SOFTWARE COMPATIBILITY. Simply because there is no universal standard yet agreed upon, any particular software will not run on every computer. Publishers of software do state which computer or computers are compatible with their software. Usually publishers specify the model as, for example, Apple II, or Apple II+, or Apple IIe. You may find that the publisher specifies the "operating system" that is required. Two operating systems you will see most often are CP/M and MS-DOS. Strictly speaking, operating systems are classified as software, but you generally purchase them with and at the same time you purchase hardware. Your salesperson can advise you when you make your purchase.

MEMORY NEEDED. The software will usually specify the minimum amount of random access memory (RAM) you will need. The number of RAM locations is commonly expressed in units of 1024 letters or digits denoted by K, so you see such expressions as 64K, 128K, etc.

DISK REQUIREMENTS. You should tell the salesperson how much storage space you must have separate from RAM, a specification which software publishers should alert you to. Disks are the most common storage devices for computers. While some new technology may appear someday, for now you will want to account for storage on either floppy disks or, with newer machines, "hard" disks. Some data base software publishers will not specify storage requirements exactly, but your hardware salesperson can help you to calculate the requirements from such things as the number of pages you foresee in your word processing documents, the number of student records that you plan to store, or the number and size of the entries that you anticipate.

DEVICES. The applications that you plan as well as the software you may acquire will help to determine the additional devices you must purchase to connect to the computer. For example, if you want to use telecommunications, then you will need a "modem" that will be compatible with the telecommunications software that you have already identified.

PRINTER. For just about every application described in this chapter you will want to have a printer that will enable you to obtain output from the computer in printed form. However, there are many differences among printers that you must explore for yourself. The least expensive printers make letters and numbers from dots placed close to each other in what is known as a "dot matrix" format. Printouts from such printers are clear and readable, but they are not the same as typewritten material. To obtain printouts of typewriter quality you need "letter quality" printers which cost more and which use a "daisy wheel" or a "thimble" element to produce output. Newer printers make use of laser technology. Some printers can print dot matrix symbols twice to produce "correspondence" quality printouts. You should examine for yourself the quality of print from the variety of printers which are on display in computer stores.

VIABILITY OF MANUFACTURER. There are many manufacturers of microcomputers and many have appealingly lower prices compared to the leading manufacturers, but you must be wary. Each year some manufacturers go bankrupt, so you must avoid buying a computer that may be discontinued. If your school system requires going out for bids, the risks of selecting a manufacturer with low prices and low stability become great. In any bid process be sure to include specifications that avoid the "fly-by-night" companies. Your computer store can help you in this.

SERVICING. Make sure that the manufacturer you select has provided for service on any equipment you may buy. Computers are quite reliable and printers are, too (but less so because there are more mechanical parts that may wear), yet things can still go wrong. Verify that repair services are readily available and that you won't have to ship anything to distant places.

EXPANDABILITY. Is it possible to add capacity, such as more memory or more disk storage, to the computer? You may want later to add applications, so be sure that the computer you buy can be given added capacity.

COSTS. At this point you have a complete picture of the costs of software, training, and hardware. After you have adjusted to the shock, you must ask yourself if the projected benefits still appear to justify the proposed expenditure. If so, then proceed with your plans. If not, you may have to go back in the planning process to explore, for example, borrowing time on another computer that is still convenient for you to use. While less desirable, of course, borrowing time may enable you to begin more modestly with some applications that require your purchasing software, training, and supplies without hardware.

Implementation

Once you have decided upon a course of action designed to apply a computer to your needs, you will need to look after certain implementation steps.

Staffing

You will need to plan for some realignment of responsibilities among those on your staff to prescribe who does what with the computer. You should assign control of the machine to yourself, but you will want others to help you. Provide for having someone other than yourself to enter text (as in word processing) or to enter student data (as in student data bases), but you should define what is to be entered. You may elect to produce output yourself (student lists, graphs, charts, etc.) or you may have someone else do so under your direction. In any case, you will find it necessary to watch carefully what goes into the computer or else you may be disappointed in what comes out.

Training

The importance of training cannot be overemphasized. It is up to you to ensure that those you have designated as having access to the computer are also fully trained in how to use the computer and the software that you have selected.

Technical Assistance

We have already discussed the importance of your developing contacts with people who can provide you with technical help in selecting software. Those same people can prove helpful in the implementation stage as well. For example, when you set up the details of your data base, you may find the prior experience of another can help you immensely with such ideas as separating the surname from the rest of the name so that alphabetizing lists becomes easy.

Supplies

Using a computer introduces the need for having supplies other than the usual office variety. You will need to have a store of floppy disks if that is the storage medium of your machine, and do not skimp on how many. You will want enough to hide some away for safe keeping of extra copies of anything important that you are storing. The extra copies, called "backup" copies, enable you to recreate any records that might be lost by such perils as a power surge in the electricity. (In fact, you may want to obtain a device that protects you against power surges.) For your printer you will want to have "continuous feed" paper for printouts. If you use daisy wheels or thimbles, you will want extras in case the one you are using should break.

Summary

I have tried here to suggest some ways that a microcomputer can prove to be a valuable aid to the manager of a program of bilingual education by reviewing briefly some possible applications of computers. For those finding an interest in one or more of the possibilities, I have outlined a set of procedures that can be followed to assess the possibilities, to select appropriate software and hardware, and finally to implement a plan. I have stressed procedures the interested manager should follow without too much in the way of detail because details are constantly made obsolete by new technologies. To the manager who does accept my challenge to work through the procedures, I offer my congratulations for daring to try something new.

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AMPS	Assistance, Management and Procurement Services
BEBA	Bilingual Education Bibliographic Abstracts
BEMSC	Bilingual Education Multifunctional Service Center
CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
EDAC	Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center
EDGAR	Education Department General Administration Regulations
ERIC	Educational Resources Information Center
ESL	English as a Second Language
GAO	General Accounting Office
HRD	Human Resources Development
LEA	Local Education Agency
MBWA	Management by Walking About
MDC	Materials Development Center
MFC	Multifunctional Service Center
NABE	National Association for Bilingual Education
NCBE	National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
NODAC	National Origin Desegregation Assistance Center
OBEMLA	Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs
OCR	Office of Civil Rights
PERT	Program Evaluation and Review Technique
RAM	Random Access Memory
RFP	Request for Proposals
SEA	State Education Agency
TESOL	Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

"In these pages is the amassed knowledge of qualifield professionals, directors and technicians alike, with extensive field experience. They present to a hungry audiance, through a discussion of management theory, cross-cultural communication and current practive, a nuts and bolts manual for structuring bilingual education programs."

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